

# **A contrastive study of the English and Norwegian cognates *from* and *fra***

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# Abstract

The focus of the present corpus-based investigation is to analyze the degree of mutual correspondence in bidirectional translations of the English preposition *from* and its Norwegian counterpart *fra*. Although the prepositions are cognates and have a common origin, they have developed idiosyncratic features that differ to some extent. For instance, *fra*, in contrast to its counterpart *from*, may function as part of compound words, i.e. *frafall*, *fraværende*, *frata*. This and other phenomena of cross-linguistic diversity in semantic mapping of the cognates *from* and *fra* are analyzed in this thesis.

The present research aims to investigate potential differences between the prepositions in English and Norwegian translations on the basis of English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC). The ENPC reveals a considerable degree of non-correspondences in the translation of *from* and *fra*. The functional domains of *from* and *fra* have been contrasted in order to discover to what extent the semantic content of the prepositions overlap and to establish their co-occurrence restrictions. The data from the ENPC provides a longer list of translation correspondences for the preposition *from* than for *fra* due to the more polysemous nature of the former. This fact partly determines the higher degree of mutual correspondence in the direction of Norwegian-English than that of English-Norwegian translations.

The basic hypothesis predicts that the semantic content and syntactic functions of *from* and *fra* will not coincide completely. The results of this research indicate that though the frequency of *from* and *fra* in the original texts is approximately the same, the degree of Mutual Correspondence is comparatively low (MC), i.e. 67%. The reasons for the non-correspondences lie mainly in the prepositions' lexical and grammatical features which do not correspond across the languages. Thus, *fra* may operate as a part of phrasal verbs and, consequently, does not require a complement, while its English counterpart always needs a complement. Another central feature that differentiates the prepositions is the amazing productivity of *fra* to make up compound words. This phenomenon is not common in English and *from* specifically does not possess the ability to take part in a word formation process.

As relatively little attention has been paid to English and Norwegian prepositions in contrastive studies, and *fra* and *from* in particular, the present thesis fills a part of this gap and can hopefully contribute to a better understanding of how prepositions operate cross-linguistically.

**Key words:** contrastive analysis, spatial, temporal and abstract meaning, trajectory and landmark, prepositional phrases, phrasal verbs, domain mapping, mutual correspondence.

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## List of Abbreviations

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BNC	British National Corpus
CA	Contrastive Analysis
DDM	Different Domain Mapping
ENPC	English–Norwegian Parallel Corpus
MC	Mutual Correspondence
PP	Prepositional Phrase
SDM	Same Domain Mapping
X (TR)	Trajector
Y (LM)	Landmark
ZDM	Zero Domain Mapping



# Introduction

---

All meanings, we know, depend on the key of interpretation.

(Eliot 1974 [1876]: 36)

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This research originated from the observation that cognates of even closely related languages such as Norwegian and English are far from stable in translation across the languages. The existence of close formal and semantic correspondences, such as *from* and *fra*, might give one the feeling that these cognates match completely when it comes to their degree of correspondence in translations. However, a brief look in the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC) reveals a remarkably high degree of non-correspondences between the cognates *from* and *fra*.

The urgency of this thesis is determined by the fact that the semantics of the prepositions of “moving away” or “separation” has not yet been sufficiently explored. In previous research the prepositions of separation have been considered in the framework of an intralingual approach. I attempt to describe these prepositions from the point of view of cross-linguistic analysis.

The aim of this thesis is thus to examine the non-correspondences of the cognates *from* and *fra* on the basis of bidirectional translation data, and establish the differences in their usage in terms of their main uses and collocational patterns. For the purpose of the contrastive analysis of the given prepositions the classification on the basis of their semantic nature will be carried out. This will serve as an important framework when it comes to the analysis of the non-correspondences.

The set of meanings associated with each of the cognates’ forms a polysemantic network in which more derived meanings are organized around a core domain. For the purposes of contrastive analysis it is useful to subdivide the prepositions according to their domain

characteristics. In the case of *from* and *fra* it is reasonable to point out three categories: spatial, temporal and abstract. Spatial uses present place, line or point, surface (1.1.); temporal prepositions deal with time or events (1.2.), while abstract ones arise as a result of meaning extension (1.3.).

1.1. I think it was three days I spent there, in a cheap little hotel not far from the cathedral, in the lower part of the town. (ABR1)

Jeg tror det var tre dager jeg tilbrakte der, på et billig lite hotell ikke langt **fra** katedralen, i den nederste delen av byen. (ABR1T)

1.2. So, from the next morning, I gave up all idea of a planned route. (ABR1)

Så **fra** neste morgen av ga jeg opp enhver tanke om en planlagt rute. (ABR1T)

1.3 With him, I am separated from the music in my blood. (ABR1)

Hos ham er jeg adskilt **fra** musikken i blodet mitt. (ABR1T)

Each preposition has developed a set of distinct but related meanings enabling us to talk about their polysemous nature. However, it is important to note that while some senses of the cognates *from* and *fra* originate in the distant past, some uses are created due to the regular uses in fixed expressions and patterns.

This thesis will be concerned with the use of *from* / *fra*, which are primary translation equivalents of each other. The interest for this research is based on the assumption that ambiguity of the prepositions may cause non-correspondence in the translation. A preliminary contrastive analysis of the cognates *fra* and *from* shows that although the prepositions share many common features they differ to some extent. The relationship between these two cognates turns out to be quite complex when it comes to so-called *collocational restrictions* – combinations of words which more or less frequently co-occur

and are grammatically structured (cf. Firth, 1957). The non-correspondences in translation seem to be more considerable in the cases of abstract and “tied” uses of *from* and *fra* (*gå ut fra* – *assume*, *suffer from* – *lide av*), compared to free uses.

The aim of this thesis is to answer to the following questions:

- What meanings are prototypical for the cognates *fra* and *from* and what meanings are determined by a specific use in a certain context?
- How do abstract uses of prepositions arise?
- On the basis of the previous aspect which of the domain representations (spatial, temporal and abstract) are the most efficient and common for *fra* and *from*?
- To what extent do the prepositions *fra* and *from* overlap regarding their semantic properties and translation correspondence?
- In what cases does the degree of divergence in the translation of the prepositions *from* and *fra* increase?
- What are the reasons for translation non-correspondences of *fra* and *from*?

## 1.1 Plan of the thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organised as follows. Chapter II gives an overview of the relations between the English and Norwegian cognates *from* and *fra*. This part reveals the common origin of the prepositions and follows their semantic changes through the history of their development in the English and Norwegian languages. Furthermore, the main approaches to the study of prepositions are considered and a classification of *from* and *fra* according to their semantic meaning is provided. In this chapter the main subcategories are

introduced in order to provide a framework for the further analysis.

Chapter III of this thesis looks at the use of corpora for linguistic research in general and contrastive analysis of the prepositions *from* and *fra* in particular. For the purpose of the investigation the English–Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC) was used.

Chapter IV describes in great detail the differences in the use of the prepositions *from* and *fra* according to their semantic meaning in the material and their mutual correspondence is calculated. The translation analysis is carried out according to the framework of domain mapping. I distinguish between Same Domain Mapping, Different Domain Mapping and Zero Domain Mapping.

Chapter V considers the cases where the prepositions *from* and *fra* function as parts of fixed prepositional phrases and describes the degree of their mutual translatability. Another subject considered in this chapter is the specific function of *fra* and *from* as components of phrasal verbs. Along with the description of the distinguishing feature of the preposition *fra* to be a part of compound words, the common translation patterns into English are presented.

Finally, in the conclusion (chapter VI), I summarize the results of the investigation carried out in this thesis.

## 2.0. Theoretical background

### 2.1. Etymological connection between *from* and *fra*

The purpose of this section is to establish that *from* and *fra* are etymologically related, and as such can be said to be cognates.

English and Norwegian belong to the same language subgroup. “Germanic is one of the largest subgroups of the Indo-European language family – comprises 37 languages with an estimated 470 million speakers worldwide” (Wayne, 2007:1). “The Germanic languages are more alike than they are different, and this becomes increasingly true the farther one descends the genetic tree” (ibid:2). According to Shchur, the systems of prepositions, as well as other parts of speech, in modern Germanic languages possess similar features. The lexicon of a language is rather flexible, it endures permanent and, in particular periods, considerable changes. Prepositions are involved in this renewing process not due to the necessity of expressing new notions, but as a result of syntax complication (Shchur, 1966).

Prepositions are the words expressing significant grammatical relations remaining unchanged through the epochs. Consequently, as compared to the words with pure lexical meanings they manifest more apparent historical stability. Early periods of Germanic languages development were characterized by eminent significance of prepositions since the grammatical relations function overstepped from the dying out case system to a new system of prepositional phrases (Shchur, 1966:110).

According to Hirt (2009), certain lexical bleaching of some prepositions led to gradual replacement by semantically “fresher” ones, i.e. by those of less differentiated meanings. Inconsistency of the situation was in the fact that some prepositions determined to express case meanings precisely made up a motley picture in terms of their meanings and underwent

partial desemantization. The same relations could be conveyed by different prepositions and that diversity of meanings can be observed in the modern system of prepositions. For example, *from* and *of* are used in similar cases and there is no clear differentiation between their use. Thus, the Modern English system of prepositions remains predominantly the Old English one since neither Danish nor Norman conquests and European borrowings influenced it significantly (Reiman, 1988).

Etymologically, the prepositions *from* and *fra* go back to Gothic *frama* that originally meant *forward*. Then its meaning was somewhat modified in the Germanic languages. *From* and *fra* acquired their modern semantic features in the early period. Thus, the English preposition *from* along with its Norwegian cognate *fra* originated from the Old Norse *fram* or *frå*: *være frå sig selv* ('be beside oneself') (Falk, 1991). Traces of *frå* have survived in the Modern English as well, which developed into *fro* in idiom *to and fro*. The data from the BNC (British National Corpus) reveals 358 occurrences of the preposition *fro*. A great majority of cases is presented by its idiomatical construction *to and fro* (*back and forth*), however, there are some cases where *fro* stands alone and conveys the meaning of *forth*:

2.1. Regional guidance generally advised that the coordinator should be appointed **fro** the senior management team. (the BNC).

At the outset the Norwegian and English cognates *fra* and *from* retained their core meaning and in the majority of cases they still convey the original semantic content of the preposition. *From* and *fra* belong to a set of prepositions which have basic meanings (either spatial or temporal) in contrast to those which do not have such clear basic meanings (*by*, *for*, *of*). Besides, the metaphorical uses of *from* and *fra* can also be found: *from time to time* - *fra tid til annen*. As Brumfit (2001:4) puts it:

... every element in our cultural experience, however complex, can be found in the inland context of the cognates, there has been a continuous development over a long historical period that led to dialectical co-development of language and culture...

...drawn into our linguistic repertoire to produce allusions of immense complexity and depth ... the range of associations which may be acquired by any specific symbol available to us is immense ... constellations of personal use of language build up into ideologies, patterns of belief that underline whole modes of human activity, building the behaviour patterns of groups who identify themselves as nations and culture.

The development of the Norwegian and English languages led to the transformation of lexical and grammatical structures. When it comes to the cognate pair *from-fra* it appears that the range and content of the meanings (according to monolingual dictionaries) coincide significantly.

## **2.2. On the semantic meaning of *from* and *fra***

The problems of language nomination and, in particular, the study of the words with relative semantics are in the focus of modern linguistics. Although prepositions rank among the most frequent words of a language and play an important role in discourse, they have been discarded as “an annoying little surface peculiarity” (Jackendoff, 1973: 345). Traditional grammars usually describe prepositions as synsemantic, or functional words that get some kind of meaning only in context. From this perspective, a complex expression would have a meaning that would not be implied in its parts at all. This contrasts with all theories of

meaning – even within the field of lexicography, in which prepositions have more or less complete meaning definitions.

For quite a long time prepositions did not attract much attention of linguists. “The relative sparseness of research on preposition semantics may be determined by the assumption that prepositions are both semantically empty and distributionally highly varied, and consequently have very low information content. Lately, however, there has been a revival of interest in prepositions in terms of categorial meanings” (Bannard & Baldwin, 2003).

The preposition (lat. *praepositio*) can be defined as a grammatically distinct word which expresses spatial relations or serves to mark various syntactic functions and semantic roles (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Here is one more definition of preposition given by Chalker and Weiner (1994): “A traditional word class, comprising words that relate two linguistic elements to each other and that generally precede the word which they “govern” (Chalker & Weiner, 1994: 310).

Prepositions are the words ingeniously connected with the category of relation in the language, i.e. they are conducive to reflect specific relations of extralinguistic reality. The relations expressed by prepositions can be subdivided into three conceptual spheres: spatial, temporal and abstract. Earlier interpretations of the preposition as possessing paradigmatic meaning appeared in the works by Quirk and Greenbaum (1985), though the authors did not denote the meanings of prepositions as lexical units.

From the point of view of modern grammar it is important to note that in these works prepositions are considered as units expressing relations between two entities, one of them representing a prepositional complement (Quirk et al. 1985). Solving the problem of the meaning of prepositions, researchers obtain the meanings on the basis of word combinations in these phrases. Quite often the meanings of words comprising the phrase are transferred to the preposition.



A preposition used grammatically does not carry substantial meaning; it functions mainly as a syntactic marker (like the prepositions *of* and *for*). In contrast, local uses have a “semantic load” and could be presented by temporal and spatial uses of prepositions. Temporal uses indicate a point in time and as a rule have their core meaning. Spatial prepositions, on the other hand, specify a location or change in position of an object in space (cf. Kenny & Garrod, 2004).

Cognitive linguistics has recently started to pay attention to polysemy, and specifically to the meaning of prepositions (Linder, 1982; Radden, 1989; Vandeloise, 1994; Herskovits, 1988; Pütz & Dirven, 1996; Cuyckens & Radden, 2002; Tyler & Evans, 2003; Taylor, 1995; Deane, 1993; Boers, 1996). Prepositions have often been discussed in a cognitive framework as polysemous items. The analysis of the prepositions in the cognitive frame has produced significant results. Prepositions do have a certain kind of meaning, their meaning is probably more complex than the meanings of other lexical categories, and the nature of this meaning has not been definitely determined.

Taylor comes to the conclusion that approaches to the preposition used in structural and generative linguistics do not explain linguistic phenomena connected with the use of prepositions both in one particular language and in different ones. “Cognitive linguists have taken up the challenge of the alleged arbitrariness of prepositional usage” (Taylor, 1995:110). The works by Herskovits are written within the framework of the approach under consideration. In spite of the fact that she criticized previous works on spatial prepositions semantics, in which the prepositional meanings are interpreted as simple relations, she did not manage to avoid the “geometrical approach” to the semantics of locatives. The author believes that any simple relation between the objects is a geometrical idea which is the core of the “ideal meaning”. “An ideal meaning of a preposition is a geometrical idea, from which all uses of that preposition derive by means of various adaptations and shifts” (Herskovits,

1986:39). All other occurrences of a spatial preposition are “deviations” from the “ideal meaning” and lead to polysemy, which Herskovits denotes as “sense shifts”.

In Taylor’s opinion, the ideal meaning leads to an ambiguous situation. On the one hand, it must be generalized enough to explain all the cases of a preposition’s use, on the other hand, it must be specific enough to distinguish between units; this is practically impossible. Another interesting conclusion is that the meaning and the use of the preposition in a language rarely coincide completely with the meaning and use of the analogous preposition in some other ones (Taylor, 1988).

Lindstromberg offers his own interpretation of prepositional meaning. He distinguishes between such notions as meaning, sense and secondary meaning. He uses the term “meaning” with respect to considerable differences while the term “sense” is used for the slightest differences between prepositions (Lindstromberg, 2010:12). One of the ways in which secondary meanings (a.k.a., extended or derived meanings) are thought to come into being is as follows. First, in order to express a new meaning or to express an old meaning differently, someone uses a word or phrase in a new, figurative way. Then, over time, this usage becomes ‘conventional’, which is to say that the expression’s original, figurative character is no longer noticed by the people who say and hear it. At the end of this development, a new, *non-figurative* meaning is stored in people’s long term memories (Cieslicka, 2008; Cutting & Bock, 1997; Sprenger, Levelt & Kempen, 2006). In Lindstromberg’s opinion the meaning of a preposition may include some or all of the following:

1. *Geometrical* (purely spatial, topological) *meaning*: This has to do with such purely spatial matters as whether the Subject and Landmark are near each other (e.g. *close to*, *next to...*); whether they are far from each other (*beyond*) or touching (*against*, *on*) or maybe near, maybe far, but not touching (*above*, *below...*); or whether the Subject is either near or in contact with the Landmark’s upper surface (*over*) or its lower surface

(*under...*) or a side (*alongside, beside...*) or its front (*in front of*) or the back (*behind...*); or whether the Subject is near any surface of the Landmark except for the top and bottom (*by*) or near any surface at all (*close to, near*); and so on.

2. *Functional meaning*: This goes beyond mere physical arrangement. For instance, the geometrical meaning of *on* in *a mirror, on the wall* is simply that the *mirror* is in contact with the *wall*. The functional meaning is that the Subject (the mirror) is supported by the Landmark (the wall). That is, if the wall disappeared, the mirror would fall. Some prepositions have a prominent functional meaning in many contexts while some others do not.

3. *Role*: Somewhat more idiomatic than function is the role that a preposition confers on a Landmark. For instance, in *throw a ball to Person X*, the preposition *to* tells us that Person X is a recipient whereas, in *throw a ball at Person X*, *at* tells us that Person X is a target (Lindstromberg, 2010).

As for *from* and *fra*, both prepositions preserve core semantics in PPs. Present dictionaries and grammars are used to provide long lists of independent meanings for each preposition and their possible uses in different contexts implying that their senses are highly arbitrary and are not in many ways related to each other. Still, there are some dictionaries that present a network of related senses based on prototype. These dictionaries' entries serve as a good source for establishing the variety of the prepositions' usages and additionally provide a good historical review. However, they do not reveal the high rate of systematicity reflected in the semantic structure of the prepositions *from* and *fra*.

English *from*, as well as its Norwegian counterpart *fra*, describes both spatial and temporal relationships (e.g. *from school, from the morning*). Studies on spatial prepositions (Brugman, 1983; Hawkins, 1984), operating with concepts like *prototypical sense* and *meaning chains*,

have prospered in uncovering motivation and order behind groupings of meanings. Taylor (1988) explains how this meaning chain analysis works in relation to his study of English and Italian prepositions:

For each preposition, we recognize a central or prototypical sense. The prototypical sense, rather than being highly general, may well profile a very specific configuration. Polysemy comes about when the preposition is used in a sense which is closely related to, but distinct from, the prototypical instance. For example: a condition which is essential might not be met; a feature which is optional to the prototype now assumes central importance, or vice versa; or some additional feature might be required. By the same process, this derived meaning may in turn give rise to a further extension, and so on. The various senses of the word thus radiate out from the central prototype, like the spokes of a wheel. Senses at the periphery might well have little in common, either with each other, or with the central senses; they are merely related by virtue of the intervening members of the meaning chain (Taylor, 1988:301).

Historical investigations show that languages steadily develop in such a way that expressions which originally had only spatial meanings have gradually extended to adopt analogous temporal meanings (Reiman, 1988). These semantic changes in a majority of the cases follow certain paths: especially during the process of grammaticalization semantic change seems unidirectional (Hopper & Traugott 1993, Traugott & Dasher 2002). The localist theory further assumes that metaphorical uses of prepositions show a marked tendency (Haspelmath, 1997) to follow a strict order, from space to time and from space or time to more abstract notions. In other words, we use space – spatial frames, as cognitive linguists generally put it (for example Taylor, 1995) – to grasp abstract notions.

### 2.2.1. Spatial meaning/domain

Spatial meaning of prepositions is considered prototypical (Herskovits, 1986; Taylor, 1995 et al), i.e. temporal and abstract meanings derive from it. Spatial relations are expressed by the combination of a preposition and a noun conveying denotative meaning (herewith nouns may combine with any spatial preposition, denoting different types of spatial relations: *on the table, from the table, under the table*) or expressing spatial notion of place: *in the room, from the city, from England*, etc.

Miller singles out two semantic categories for all language units with spatial meaning: “entity” and “relator” (Miller, 1985). Prepositions with spatial semantics, from his point of view, may express not only spatial relations between the objects but a certain “entity”. The main entities may be as follows:

- 1) the surfaces of objects;
- 2) the space adjacent to the surfaces;
- 3) the interior of objects;
- 4) the exterior of objects;
- 5) areas of space.

Spatial PPs are described by a set of entities marking out and denoting their combinability character and their interrelations. Nevertheless, there are some prepositions which correlate with relators, but not with entities, in other words, they express only spatial relations, and the preposition *from* is among them (Miller, 1985). Miller’s method of describing the meaning of spatial prepositions makes it possible to reveal the integral component of semantic structure of prepositions but is not efficient with respect to differential semantics.

The functional approach to spatial semantics is connected with “mental models” within which really existing functional connections between the objects are taken into consideration.

Functional elements are specified according to geometrical elements conveying by the meaning of the preposition (Garrod & Sanford, 1989; Herskovits, 1986 et al.). For example the preposition *on* possesses the meaning of “functional support”, while the preposition *in* – “functional containment”. Undoubtedly, functional characteristics are important to explain some cases of the use of prepositions but the meanings of some prepositions may be restricted to geometrical and topological characteristics.

Taylor considers the meaning of spatial prepositions in connection with the spatial position of an object in relation to another one. In this manner, he identifies static and dynamic relations, since the preposition on the one hand may point to the X – “place of the trajectory” relative to Y – a “landmark” (the terms are taken from Langacker (1987:231)) and on the other hand the preposition may point to different types of dynamic relations: “goal”, “source”, “path”. Thus, spatial relations may be static and dynamic. Static relations denote the place where one physical thing (TR – X) is located in relation to another (LM – Y), i.e. *where*. Spatial prepositions expressing static relations may perform different semantic functions: volume, horizontal surface, vertical surface, ultimate point, front side, back side, midpoint, opposite side, closure of the space, proximity, etc. Dynamic spatial relations denote the path of the TR in relation to the LM, i.e. *where from*. Implementing dynamic spatial relations, prepositions express movement towards the LM.

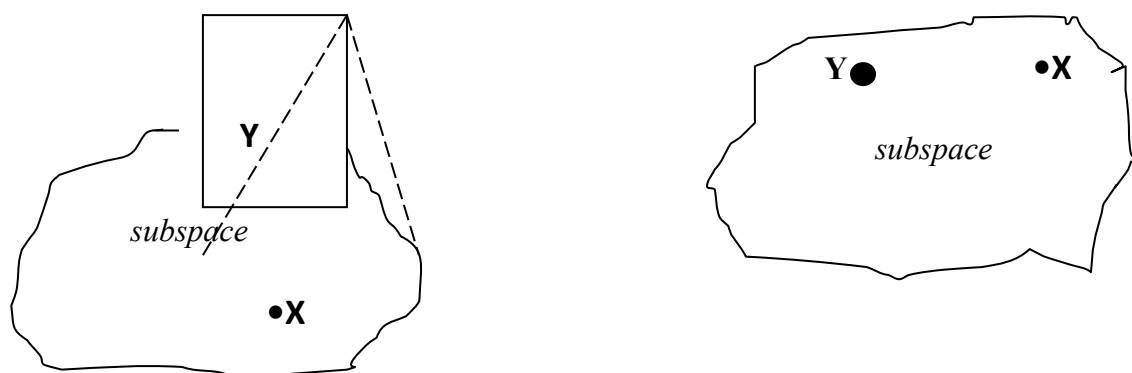
It is noteworthy that Taylor admits that spatial prepositions may express non-spatial relations between the objects as well as relations characteristic for a certain language. “A particular preposition may encode some highly idiosyncratic, language-specific aspect of the TR (trajector)- LM (landmark) relation” (Taylor, 1995:110). Lakoff posits that prepositions “... can’t be presented by a single core meaning which would determine their various senses. The meanings of each unit form a radially structured category with the central meaning and the ties which are defined by image schema transformation and metaphors” (Lakoff, 1987:455).

The observations made above make it possible to conclude that the semantics of prepositions is not restricted to basic geometrical relations but represents a complicated semantic structure and in some cases carries functional characteristics of trajector-landmark relations. The polysemy of prepositions is determined by their ability to express different types of X-Y relations and introduce different types of space.

Broadly speaking, “prepositions of place can be used as prepositions of path and vice versa. For any preposition which locates a Subject (Trajector) in space or describes a path (a change of location in space), the term is “*spatial preposition*” (Lindstromberg, 2010:9). Lindstromberg also points out that *from* – the opposite of *to* – is used to describe a path in terms of its origin. It describes paths that go in any direction.

As regards the prepositions *from* and *fra* it should be noted that they can express not only dynamic but static spatial relations and there are no functional characteristics in their spatial meanings.

According to Borozdina, in the meaning of the preposition *from* there is no spatial concept of moving away from a special axonometric space. *From* points to the moving away either from the surface of the object (in this way the idea of initial position of X is important) or from the space adjoining Y (Y-subspace – the term introduced by Borozdina – близпространство) (Borozdina, 2003). The idea of subspace is connected with the structuring of a spatial scene when in the situation under description some fragments, parts and areas, having no real limits, are marked out. For example, *from the corner of the room* (the corner of the room which is not separated from the rest of its space is marked out) (Figure 2.1).



**Fig. 2.1 Models of subspace (Borozdina, 2003)**

As Borozdina posits, *from* is characterized by its polysemy. Major spatial meanings of *from* are as follows (Borozdina, 2003):

1. It points to the initial place of residence/location of X (where is X from?).
2. It conveys information of X's moving away from the space adjoining Y (Y-subspace) where Y is supposed to be an object around which such space can be formed either due to its relatively large size or its qualitative characteristics and functional assignment.
3. It points to the moving away of X from a point which is
  - a) the starting point of X's movement (dynamic meaning);
  - b) the starting point of the distance from X to Y (static meaning).

This seems to apply to the preposition *fra* as well. Thus, the prepositions *from* and *fra* depict various images of spatial scenes where the characteristics of X's location is crucial for specifying the meaning of prepositions. It is notable that *from* and *fra* may introduce different types of space and determine different types of X-Y relations. Inspired by Borozdina's classification I have come up with six categories for the individualization of space that *from* and *fra* may indicate. Table 2.1 gives an overview of the examined criteria, exemplified in



(2.1.)-(2.6.). The categories types of space for the two prepositions are based on the data from the ENPC. I introduce them here in order to suggest a theoretical framework that aims to provide a tool for analysing and explaining many of the fundamental aspects of *from* and *fra*.

**Table 2.1 Types of space introduced by *from* and *fra* (based on data from the ENPC)**

		From	Fra
1	Space conceptualized as axonometric and characterized by peculiar functions and qualitative characteristics	–	+
2	A point of X's initial location	+	+
3	X is within Y-subspace	+	–
4	X is the part of the whole	+	+
5	X's initial location surface (where is X from?)	+	–
6	Location of X beyond the supporting surface (at some distance from it)	+	+

The following examples serve to illustrate the corresponding types of space, where there is one example for each particular class:

2.1. Marie hadde vært på Fagerlund helt siden hun var ungpике og hadde kommet ut **fra** "Heimen" som de kalte nervesanatoriet i nabobygda. (KF2)

Marie had been at Fagerlund ever since she had been a youngster and had come out **of** the "home", as they called the psychiatric clinic in the neighbouring locality. (KF2T)

2.2. De **fra** nabogården var budt inn til kaffe. (KF2)

The people **from** the neighbouring farm had been invited in for coffee. (KF2T)

2.3. Making his way gingerly to the kitchen, he filled with water a large polythene bag **from** his pocket. (FF1)

Så gikk han forsiktig ut i kjøkkenet og fylte vann i en plastpose han tok opp **av** lommen. (FF1T)

2.4. Det var tydeligvis ikke første gang noen brakte ham et bilde **fra** Vatikanets enorme samlinger til vurdering. (JW1)

It was obviously not the first time someone had brought him a picture **from** the enormous collections of the Vatican for his judgement. (JW1T)

2.5. De vesentligste gjenstandene hadde hun på en eller annen måte bragt med seg, på samme måte som de grønne og hvite tallerknene, med kunstferdige snirkler, som de hadde spist sine bakte epler på. (AB1T)

The more substantial objects she had somehow brought with her, as she had the green and white plates, elaborately scrolled, **from** which they had eaten their baked apples. (AB1)

2.6. På en spiker over brisken med madrassen hang et fargefoto **fra** en sydhavsøy, tydeligvis revet ut av en kalender, og over dette, **fra** den samme spikeren hang et slags bånd, et farget eller vevet bånd som jeg gjenkjente som et hårbånd nettopp i det øyeblikket onkel Kristens store hånd grep til og nappet det av spikeren og uten videre stappet det i bukselommen. (KF2)

On a nail above the bunk-bed hung a coloured picture **of** a South Sea island, apparently torn out of a calendar, and above this, **from** the same nail, hung a kind of ribbon, a coloured ribbon, perhaps woven, which I had only just time to see was a hair ribbon before Uncle Kristen's large hand shot out and whipped it from the nail, unceremoniously cramming it into his trouser pocket. (KF2T)

As can be seen from the examples the prototypical spatial meaning of prepositions *from* and *fra* is “moving away from the object”, but there are some differences in the types of space introduced by *from* and *fra* (examples 2.1, 2.3 and 2.5) and, consequently, some differences of X–Y relations. This may be one of the reasons for their translation non-correspondences.

### 2.2.2. Temporal meaning/domain

Temporality in the extended interpretation of Petryanina (2007) is understood as a

conceptual category based on the temporal characteristic of the action or state, which employs different morphological, syntactic, lexical and the other means of linguistic expression of time. Temporality, being a vector category, apperceives specific character of temporal deixis denoting both extralinguistic moment of speech and some other possible starting points, in particular, spatial points representing secondary modifications of temporal relations” (Petryanina, 2007:35).

According to Bondarko (1990), the notions “starting point” and “interval” are essential for spatial and temporal description of the actions and events perceived. Temporal limit in spatial preposition interpretation can be understood as a certain time segment or as a time point. Differentiation of temporal meaning volume is influenced considerably by the semantics of a noun in a prepositional phrase. In general, localization of the action or event within the time period is a notion including two constituents: the direction of the time vector movement and the point with respect to which the movement is considered. Specification of the temporal meaning is derived due to the notional component connected with the preposition (Bondarko, 1990). Accordingly, it makes sense to consider the temporal meaning of prepositions through the prism of time expressions. Thus, in this thesis a preposition followed by a time expression is considered a temporal preposition, i.e. we speak of temporal prepositions for any sequence of the form “preposition+timex” (Shilder & Habel, 2001).

According to Shilder and Habel, the set of the temporal expressions (timexes) includes dates (e.g. 08.04.2001), prepositional phrases (PPs) containing some time expression (e.g. *on Friday*), and verbs referring to a situation (e.g. *opened*). The main distinction they make is between time-denoting and event-denoting expressions. The first group comprises chunks expressing temporal information that can be stated with reference to a calendar or clock system. Syntactically speaking, these expressions are mainly expressed by prepositional, adverbial or noun phrases (e.g. *on Friday* or *today*, or *the fourth quarter*). The second group,

event-denoting expressions, refers to events. These expressions have an implicit temporal dimension, since all situations possess a temporal component (Shilder & Habel, 2001). Temporal reference can be expressed by time-denoting expressions in three different ways:

- Explicit reference. Date expressions such as *08.04.2001* refer explicitly to entries of a calendar system. Also, time expressions such as *3 p.m. or midnight* denote a precise moment in temporal representation systems.
- Indexical reference. All temporal expressions that can only be evaluated via a given index time are called indexical (*today, last week, next Saturday, this year, etc.*).
- Vague reference. Some temporal expressions express only vague temporal information and it is rather difficult to precisely place the information expressed on a time line. Expressions such as *in several weeks, in the evening or by Saturday the latest* cannot be represented by points or exact intervals in time.

Pustejovsky offers a guideline for identification of timexes, events and their relations. His scheme separates temporal expressions and events too (Pustejovsky, 1995). These criteria — concerning the characterization of English units due to the temporal information they carry, can be applied to the prepositions *from* and *fra* as well, they may mark relations between entities of various kinds and temporal is one of them. Their temporal meaning was formerly derived from spatial meaning. One point common to both English and Norwegian temporal function of the prepositions under study is to talk about time: *from time to time – fra tid til annen, from that moment – fra det øyeblikk, from Monday – fra Mandag*. They may combine with the following types of timexes:

- **expressing date:**

2.7. His article argued that nuclear generated electricity couldn't realistically replace oil and fossil fuels unless all nations built sixteen new reactors a week in the five years from 1995, a program impossible to achieve and one which, if practicable, would add intolerably to the nuclear threat. (PDJ3)

I artikkelen hevdet han at dersom atomenergi skulle erstatte olje og fossilt brensel, måtte alle nasjoner bygge seksten nye reaktorer hver uke i fem år fra 1995, et program det ikke var mulig å oppfylle, og hadde det latt seg gjøre, ville det bety en uforsvarlig økning av atomtrusselen. (PDJ3T)

2.8. Et eksempel på denne mytekritikken finner vi hos filosofen Xenofanes, som levde **fra** ca. 570 f.Kr. (JG1)

One exponent of this view was the philosopher Xenophanes, who lived from about 570 B.C. (JG1T)

#### **expressing time:**

2.9. Would it all be cleared up and decided by the time I saw him again, two or three weeks **from now**? (ABR1)

2.10. Kom alt til å være klart og avgjort når jeg igjen traff ham, to eller tre uker **fra nå av**? (ABR1T)

#### **- expressing event:**

2.11. (Her own voice dated **from** the days of her girls' school in North London, basic B.B.C. correct, flavourless. (DL2)

2.12. (Hennes eget tonefall stammet **fra** pikeskoledagene, en skole i det nordlige London, et nøytralt, korrekt gjennomsnittsspråk. (DL2T))

Sometimes the prepositions *from* and *fra* occur with timexes denoting duration. In this case they are used, as a rule, in combination with such prepositions as *to*, *till*, *til*:

2.13. **From** time **to** time, when hunger reminded me of my body, I would look for a roadside place to eat. (ABR1)

**Fra** tid **til** annen, når sulten minnet meg på kroppen min, så jeg etter et vertshus ved veien der jeg kunne spise. (ABR1T)

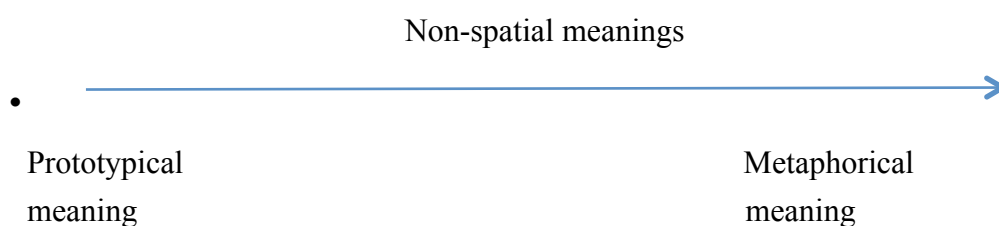
As was mentioned above, PPs expressing temporal relations in English and Norwegian in general may denote either time point or time interval. The prepositions *from* and *fra*, thus, in their temporal meaning indicate the initial time point from which an action starts. Furthermore, both prepositions may indicate the period of the enclosed time as well as to perform an action that has not been finished in time. The reference interval centralizes around a point which is given either absolutely or relatively. Therefore, the temporal meaning of the prepositions *from* and *fra* is formed not only from the information about the relations between the objects but from the way of representation of the denotative situation and interpretation of the time point or the time interval as well.

### 2.2.3. Abstract meaning/domain

The analysis of the theoretical background material shows that modern linguistics accepts the fact that prepositions convey different types of meanings and that their structure is rather complicated. As was mentioned above, the occurrence of spatial and temporal meanings of

prepositions is practically indisputable. It is also considered that some differential meanings may derive out of the prototypical meaning. These meanings are not clearly defined. Sometimes they are spoken of as “some other meanings”. Jackendoff and Landau point out that in addition to pure geometrical relations spatial prepositions may convey non-spatial information. Other meanings of the spatial prepositions are derived from the central or prototypical spatial meaning as its metaphorical extensions. They are created, for example, by varying the referents of the landmark and the trajector (Jackendoff & Landau, 1991).

Prepositions may have abstract, metaphorical meanings, which have developed from the core meaning through a process known as “meaning extension” (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993). Cognitivists claim that meaning extensions are motivated in that they follow a “path of gradually increasing abstractions” where each meaning has an obvious link with the previous one (Dirven, 1993: 76). It is therefore possible to organize the different meanings of a preposition in a “radial network”, with the prototypical meaning at the centre and the extended meanings surrounding it. The distance between the prototypical meaning and an extended meaning reflects the degree of metaphorical abstraction of the extension. Therefore, spatial meanings can be extended from physical to metaphorical, mental space. These extensions follow a logical path of increasing abstraction, which can be schematically represented as follows (Figure 2.2):



**Fig.2.2 Extension of meaning**

Abstract meanings of prepositions are specified due to semantic elements of the context in which the domains of a preposition's use are anchored. Metaphorical use of the preposition is the highest degree of abstraction of its meaning. Semantic properties / relations among the abstract entities are much more intricate than those of the temporal and spatial. In some contexts prepositions *from* and *fra* become thoroughly bleached of their meanings. Moreover, the use of abstract *from* and *fra* indicates various qualities and emotions. In such a way the human being is the metaphorical container into which abstract qualities are placed (*from the bottom of one's heart –av hele ens hjerte, fra barnemunn –from a child's mouth*).

Thus, spatial meanings of prepositions play a role in the expression and structuring of many key non-spatial notions. A number of abstract notions with respect to the preposition *from* are reviewed by Dirven (1993), and illustrated with examples from the ENPC. The translations into Norwegian are included in order to reveal cases of non-correspondence.

The notions:

### **Agent (cf., Cause, Means)**

#### 1. (Landmark as an origin).

- 2.14. Aunt Marie, visiting one weekend and arousing much ribald attention **from** the other boys with her tweed cape and the pheasant feathers in the band of her brown felt hat, immediately said that Hartmann must bring Fibich home with him, meaning to her gloomy flat in Compayne Gardens, and the winding hilly streets so unlike home. (AB1)

Tante Marie kom på besøk en weekend og vakte stor og pøbelaktig oppmerksomhet **hos** de andre guttene på grunn av sin tweedcape og fasanfjærene i båndet på sin brune filthatt. Hun sa øyeblikkelig at Hartmann måtte ta Fibich med seg hjem, og med hjem mente hun sin dystre leilighet i Compayne Gardens og de svingete bratte gatene, så forskjellig fra hjemme. (AB1T)



## Source

The process is associated with a source as a Landmark:

2.15. And I wonder how much she earns **from** weaving? (TB1)

(Thinking of earning as something that comes from a source)

Og jeg tenker: Tro hvor mye hun tjener **på** vevstua? (TB1T)

## Cause. (cf., Agent, Reason, Circumstance)

*From* construes a cause as a source of no particular dimensionality. In *die from TB*, TB is spoken of as the starting point of a path ending at death. The same basic image underlies the use of *from* in :

2.16. That the uneasiness came **from** timidity rather than dishonesty did not, in Martine's view, excuse it: a man had no business to be timid. (AB1)

At usikkerheten kom **av** forsaghet og ikke av uærlighet, var ingen unnskyldning i Martines øyne: en mann hadde ingenting med å være forsagt. (AB1T)

2.17. Long after she had fainted **from** the pain. (MN1T)

Lenge etter at hun hadde besvimt **av** smerte. (MN1)

## Constituent/Ingredient. (Cf., Accompaniment, Accessory).

*From* construes the Landmark (a raw material) as a source of no particular dimensionality. *From* also indicates that the Subject has “moved” (~ changed) considerably from its starting point.

2.18. It hung in readiness on the peg made **from** a spool, over by the door with the oval, spotted enamel sign that said: PRIVATE. (HW1T)

Den hang i beredskap **på** trådsnelle-knaggen borte ved døra med det skjoldete, ovale emaljeskiltet der det sto: "PRIVAT". (HW1)

2.19. He had a ring of his own, of which he was very proud, made **from** a gold

sovereign he'd found in the old King's Pond Sewer; he and his mates were a friendly lot. (MD1)

Han hadde en ring selv som han var meget stolt av. Den var laget **av** en gullmynt han hadde funnet i den gamle King's Pond-kloakken. Han og kameratene var en hyggelig gjeng. (MD1T)

### **Dispossession.**

*From* signifies deprivation of something:

2.20. He had: two long ladders, a short ladder, a trestle (but needed, badly, another), paintbrushes, some tools; and could borrow **from** his friend, in Chalk Farm. (DL2)

Han hadde: to lange stiger, én kort stige, en arbeidsbenk — (men han trengte en ny) — malerredskap, litt verktøy; i et knipetak kunne han låne mer **fra** vennene sine på den gamle jobben. (DL2T)

### **Evidence/Logical grounds (cf., Cause, Reason, Purpose)**

*From* portrays evidence as the starting point in a path and the conclusion as the endpoint:

2.21. Yvette was charmed by this fairy-tale beginning and listened to the story as if it were indeed a romance, with herself at the centre of it, although **from** the high colour that invaded the older woman's cheeks as she told it the adventure had been unwelcome, distasteful, hazardous, and indeed so grave a risk that Martine's face flushed as she recounted it. (AB1)

Yvette var henrykt over denne eventyrlige begynnelsen og lyttet til historien som om den virkelig var en romantisk fortelling med henne selv i sentrum, skjønt **av** den hissige farven som bredte seg over den eldre kvinnens kinn mens hun fortalte, forsto Yvette at opplevelsen hadde vært uvelkommen, usmakelig, risikabel, og faktisk så farlig at Martine rødmet mens hun gjenfortalte den. (AB1T)

The examples above show a certain difference between abstract meanings of the prepositions *from* and *fra*. It suggests that mental domains in English and Norwegian are conceptualized in markedly different ways and the results from the study of English are not necessarily transferable to the Norwegian language.

## 2.3 Functions of the prepositions *from* and *fra*

The functions of prepositions may be considered from a syntactic and semantic point of view.

As Saint-Dizier posits:

Prepositions can first be viewed as a functional category in syntax: they are heads of prepositional phrases. The preposition then hierarchically dominates the noun phrase. Prepositions can also be viewed as a semantic relation between a structure that precedes it (e.g. a verb) and another one that follows it (e.g. an NP). This relation can be represented as a conceptual relation. Finally, prepositions can be viewed as a lexical category that imposes both a categorial (structure level) and a semantic selection (semantic restriction level) (Saint-Dizier, 2006:7).

Similar to the other predicative categories, prepositions have type restrictions on their arguments, they assign thematic roles, and they have a semantic content, possibly underspecified. The only difference with the other open-class categories like nouns, verbs or adjectives is that they do not have any morphology. These considerations show the central role played by prepositions in the proposition and their fundamental predicative and relational nature (Saint-Dizier, 2006).

Thus, the primary function of prepositions is relational; a preposition typically combines with another constituent (*complement*) to form a prepositional phrase, relating the complement to the context in which the phrase occurs (Biber et al., 1999).

According to the function prepositions perform in PPs it is possible to differentiate between transitive and intransitive prepositions (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Intransitive prepositions do not take a complement and occur most commonly as: components of larger multiword expressions (e.g. *put on, take off*), predicates (e.g. *game is over*) or pronominal modifiers (e.g. *off juice*). Transitive prepositions, on the contrary, select a complement to form prepositional phrases (e.g. *at last, in mind*). It is quite easy to establish senses which are applied by only intransitive prepositions (e.g. *pick up*) and uniquely transitive prepositions, as the English preposition *from* is assumed to be. The Norwegian preposition *fra*, however, has different grammatical characteristics in this respect and, due to the analysed material, may act as an intransitive preposition as well (e.g. *si fra, falle fra* “to die”). Accordingly, the English preposition *from* always demands a complement, while its Norwegian counterpart may function as a part of phrasal verb and operate without a complement:

2.22. After that had been registered (and she knew the importance of first impressions) she tended to let her attention lapse **from** what followed. (AB1)

2.23. Enkene hadde, for flere år siden avtalt at hvis en av dem falt **fra**, skulle suppeterrinen, henholdsvis bisamkåpen, tilfalle den som ble igjen. (BV1)

This observation may partly explain the cases of non-correspondence between *fra* and *from*. In fact, intransitive *fra* cannot be translated by its most common correspondence *from*. It is relatively difficult to quantify the direct ratio of the Norwegian preposition *fra* in terms of its transitivity (there is no tag distinction between transitive and intransitive preposition in the ENPC), but it will be done for the material assembled for the analysis in this study.

### **3.0 Material and method**

Not so long ago it was quite complicated to carry out reliable research due to the limited access to empirical data. The appearance of corpora made this task (use of large amounts of empirical data) easier. The present analysis will be carried out on the basis of the English Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC). The ENPC is a bidirectional translation corpus consisting of original English texts and their translations into Norwegian and Norwegian original texts and their translations into English.

It should be pointed out here that to compile a bilingual translation and comparable corpus is often bounded up with scarce translations made from the less popular language into the widespread one. One of the difficulties in compiling the ENPC was caused by comparatively few translations made from Norwegian into English. The reason must lie in: (1) the inclination of Norwegian writers to attract more readers by publishing in English; (2) the tendency to translate English non-fiction texts into only one of the Scandinavian languages, generally Swedish or Danish; (3) the adoption of many non-fiction texts to the target readers, that makes the translation inaccurate and, thus, cannot be included into the corpus being not reliable.

The ENPC started as a research project at the Department of British and American Studies in 1994 and was completed in 1997. Professor Stig Johansson initiated and directed the project.

The main components of the corpus are matched and contain the same amount and the same types of material (Johansson, 2007: 11). Thus, the ENPC comprises 30 fiction texts (general fiction, children's books and detective novels) and 20 non-fiction texts (concerning religion, social and natural sciences, geography and history, law, medicine, arts) in each direction.

It is important to note that the great advantage of the corpus in any research is that it serves as a means of uncovering differences where they might be unexpected. The investigation of corpus-based data establishes the fact that approximate correspondence predictability very often does not conform to the empirical data. Thus, with regard to mutual translatability of the prepositions *from* and *fra* it is crucial to analyse the degree of the correspondence through corpus data. Different bilingual dictionaries give only one variant of translation of both prepositions where *from* and *fra* are interchangeable counterparts. It is essential to mention that except for a couple of texts in *nynorsk*, the Norwegian originals and translations are written in *bokmål*.

Since *from* and *fra*, like most prepositions, are frequent phenomena, it is reasonable to narrow down the field of investigation. It was therefore decided to limit the analysis of the English and Norwegian prepositions *from* and *fra* to the fiction texts of the ENPC. The amount of hits was vast and a further limitation to 300 random samples from each of the languages was made. Since the ENPC interface does not automatically randomize a sample, it was done manually by picking up every 5<sup>th</sup> occurrence. Each of the 600 sentences containing *from* / *fra* was manually analysed to identify possible meanings of the cognates and to establish the degree of their overlap.

A definite advantage of investigating prepositions in the corpus data is concealed in their indeclinable nature. Indeclinable words are words that lack grammatical inflection though belonging to a form class whose members are usually inflected (Wordnik, 2010).

The differences in overall distribution of *from* and *fra* in the fiction texts are not substantial, but the degree of mutual correspondence varies considerably.

The method used in this thesis is contrastive analysis. Crystal points out that "the principle of contrast is considered fundamental to linguistic analysis" (Crystal, 1985: 73). "Contrastive analysis of the linguistic phenomena is aimed at indicating the similarities and revealing

differences observed both in the language systems and in the use of the units for the analysis in the languages compared” (Gak, 1989: 10). Contrastive investigations differ in the level of analysis. Lado (1957), for example, suggests three levels of contrastive approach: the form, the meaning, the distribution. The term “distribution” implies not only the formal “environment” of the word but its use in definite situations and contexts (Lado, 1957). Contextual and functional analysis play a great role in contrastive studies. According to Gak (1989), it has two aspects: qualitative and quantitative. A qualitative analysis points out the divergences in the use of the units in different languages. Nevertheless, it is not efficient enough. The task of contrastive analysis is to reveal linguistic tendencies. This requires quantitative information. So, calculations, tables, diagrams and graphics are an inalienable part of contrastive analysis. As is noted, another significant aspect of contrastive linguistics is comparative research of general regularities of divergences revealed by means of contrastive analysis (Gak, 1989). Contrastive semantic studies seem to be especially significant for cognitive linguistics since they are considered to be able to reveal important facts of conceptual systems.

Contrastive studies involve a systematic description of differences and similarities in the functioning of a source and a target language in synchrony. Their purpose is to consider structural-semantic as well as functional-pragmatic peculiarities of the two languages to meet the requirements of translation (Gak, 1989).

An essential part of contrastive studies is the analysis of cross-linguistic correspondences which provide a better understanding of structural divergences and functional variation.

The already established defining features that specify the device of comparison (or contrast) as used in linguistics can be listed as follows (Konetskaya, 1993: 6-7):

- the object of comparison (related / unrelated, closely related languages; dialects; specialized professional languages);
- the purpose of comparison (investigating relationships between languages and language 'families'; searching for linguistic universals; establishing equivalence and cross-linguistic correspondences);
- direction of comparison (synchrony vs. diachrony);
- theory as a system of well-grounded characteristics of the object;
- method as a set of techniques applied in contrastive analysis.

As regards the first defining feature, it is interesting to observe some restrictions of lexical-semantic overlapping in Norwegian and English translations, despite the fact they are closely related languages. In this thesis the purpose of the contrastive analysis is to establish equivalence and cross-linguistic correspondences *of the prepositions from and fra*. In respect of the third defining feature, I use contrastive analysis to describe differences and similarities of Norwegian and English in synchrony.

According to Altenberg and Granger, the contrastive analysis based on a corpus of the kind used here is aimed at the following (Altenberg & Granger, 2002: 13-14):

- enlarging of the empirical database of cross-linguistic studies based on the similarities and differences in the lexicon of the languages under consideration;
- specification of the cross-languages correspondences by means of the use of large volumes of the material;
- creating the background for the characterology of the languages describing their distinguishing specific features;
- more precise elaboration of lexical typology and linguistic universals;



- lexical systems and contextual use of the words studies providing paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations coverage;
- searching for the translation equivalents of polysemous words, revealing the contextual translation correspondences and their frequency;
- revealing the differences in the original texts and translations which make it possible to deepen the analysis of translators' individual strategies and universal translation devices.

### **3.1. Contrastive analysis and Mutual Correspondence**

A contrastive analysis suggests that the compared linguistic units should possess common meanings and common pragmatic functions (Gvishiany, 2010). A contrastive analysis presupposes a *tertium comparationis* i.e. a likeness or constant that would provide a basis for analyzing the items (cf. Johansson 2007:3). In contrastive studies it is important to make sure that we are comparing like with like. (Johansson, 2007). The advantage of using translation corpora in research is that they comprise “texts which are intended to express the same meanings and have the same discourse functions in the relevant languages” (Johansson 1999:5).

Chesterman (1998) claims that the items to be compared across languages have to be selected on the basis of *perceived similarity* such as translation equivalence, semantic/etymological similarity, grammatical or functional categories. A frequently suggested *tertium comparationis* is translation equivalence (Chesterman, 1998) which implies that the items in the two languages convey (more or less) the same meaning. The present thesis bases itself on the assumption that translation is a good *tertium comparationis*.

However, there still some questions arise: how is the search for translation equivalents to be carried out: in the language system or in the use? Why are there no total correspondences between vocabulary equivalents of the words and their translation variants? These and some other questions are under discussion in modern linguistics. In this respect, translation theory considers notions such as “translation equivalence” and “translation competence”. For example, some scientists believe that translation equivalence is a relative notion (Chesterman, 1998; James, 1980). Cross-language lexical correspondences are based on translation equivalents, but in a number of cases the translation is not literal. More often it tends to deviate from the source language as to what is expressed in different translation transformations: additions, omissions, transpositions, replacements and others which are caused by language-specific, socio-cultural and communicative reasons. In this regard a question arises: what translations can actually satisfy the criterion of cross-language equivalence?

When contrastive analysis is used, equivalence can be confirmed by a quantitative method which includes the process of extracting the most frequent translations of a word. Concerning this, the criterion of “mutual correspondence” appeared to have great significance. Mutual Correspondence (MC) is “the frequency with which different (grammatical, semantic and lexical) expressions are translated into each other” (Altenberg, 1999:254). Altenberg suggests that MC should be calculated and expressed as a percentage by the following formula:

$$(A_t + B_t / A_s + B_s) \times 100$$

where  $A_t$  and  $B_t$  are the compared items in the translations, and  $A_s$  and  $B_s$  the compared items in the source texts.

MC is an important part of the CA in establishing to what extent *from* and *fra* are equivalent.

Before calculating the MC and carrying out the CA proper, a distributive analysis of the items according to the domains (spatial, temporal, abstract) will be carried out.

A detailed data analysis of the prepositions *from* and *fra* due to their domain distribution in the translation will allow us to detect and calculate translation correspondences for each of the conceptual domains. In the context of working frame with a particular interest to domain correspondences, three domain categories are distinguished: Same Domain Mapping (SDM), Different Domain Mapping (DDM) and Zero Domain Mapping (ZDM). This classification was introduced by Hasan (2009) in the study carried out in respect to the preposition *at* across English and Arabic languages, and fits into the framework of this thesis as well. SDM denotes that the semantic identity is retained in the translation, i.e. *fra=from* or *from=fra*. This index is included in the MC calculation formula. DDM and ZDM mean non-correspondences of domain mapping across the languages. The analysis of these types of domain mapping helps to reveal the variants of translation and the ways of their lexical and grammatical actualization.

## 4.0 Contrastive analysis of *from* and *fra*

In this chapter I am going to conduct a distributive analysis of translation correspondences of the prepositions *from* and *fra* in their spatial, temporal and abstract uses. The translation analysis is to be carried out according to the framework of domain mapping, as outlined below. The ultimate aim of the research is the MC calculation and the possible reasons for translation deviations.

### 4.1 Meaning and translation equivalence

Searching for the preposition translations in bilingual dictionaries one may simply discover that they are very complex, often involving semantic considerations, not to mention the large idiosyncratic variations.

Prepositional systems of different languages do not coincide completely and the number of items capable of expressing relations determined by preposition differs from language to language. Besides, the meanings of prepositions do not convey denotation characteristics and properties precisely. Quite often they are associated with dissimilar mental models of native speakers of different languages. This phenomenon is connected with a specific conceptualization of objects. There are some other reasons for translation non-correspondences of prepositions. Although English and Norwegian are related languages, one can expect a number of differences in their preposition usage. One such characteristic, especially prevalent in English prepositions, is their largely phraseological nature (Downing & Locke, 1992).

Prepositions which have little independent meaning and whose choice depends on some other word are referred to as “bound prepositions” (Biber et al., 1999: 74). Bound prepositions are contrasted with free prepositions, that have an independent meaning and whose choice is not dependent on any specific word in the context.

The lack of cross-linguistic correspondence for bound uses of words has often been underlined in the literature (and is also taken up in Chapter V of the present thesis). Lewis points out that “common words which individually carry very little meaning and are elements in multi-word lexical items usually have no word-for-word translation” (Lewis, 1997: 64). The bound uses of a preposition, therefore, are unlikely to be translated by the obvious equivalent in the other language. This, according to Brala (2002), explains why the idiomatic usage of prepositions is particularly troublesome for translation.

Metaphorical extensions also tend to be problematic from a cross-linguistic perspective. Lindstromberg notes that, in languages that are closely related to English, the central meanings of prepositions often have direct equivalents, but once you move into the metaphoric extensions deviations are likely to occur (Lindstromberg, 2010). This is because each language, in its meaning extensions, has followed different chains of meanings and has exploited differently the “common cognitive endowment” of prepositions (Zelinsky-Wibbelt 1993: 20). As Dirven puts it, “languages, even the most related ones, have conceptualized the links between spatial and mental domains of experience in slightly or markedly different ways” (Dirven, 1993: 96).

When it comes to the preposition *from*, different conceptual mappings can be observed in translation. According to Hasan (2009), it is possible to distinguish between the following conceptual domains: spatial, temporal and abstract (cf. sections 2.2.1 – 2.2.3).

1. Same domain mapping (SDM), when the preposition in the source language is translated by the preposition of the same conceptual domain, e.g. spatial *from* translated by spatial *fra*.
2. Zero domain mapping (ZDM), when the source preposition is missing in the target language. In other words the preposition is deleted and is not found in translation.
3. Different domain mapping (DDM), when in the target language a preposition of a different domain is used, e.g. spatial *from* into temporal preposition.

This is the contrastive framework I will apply in my analysis in order to establish conceptual/semantic conditions of correspondence/non-correspondence between *from* and *fra*. Before analysing *from* and *fra* according to their meaning/conceptual domain in a contrastive perspective, I will give a general overview of the prepositions' MC (table 4.1) as well as an overview of their translation correspondences (table 4.2).

**Table 4.1 Total rate of *from-fra* mutual correspondence in the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (300 random hits from each language)**

fra/from total (No)	Fra=from (No)	Fra=from (%)	From=fra (No)	From=fra (%)	MC (%)
300/300	193	64	162	54	59,2

It is particularly noteworthy that the Norwegian preposition is more likely to be translated by its English counterpart than vice versa (64% vs. 54%). These are findings that go beyond the capacity of intuitive identification and would be difficult to discover without the use of the

corpus. Another surprising feature is that the cognates' Mutual correspondence is comparatively low (59,2%). The fact that the variability of translation equivalents is markedly higher in the English-Norwegian direction may indicate more polysemous nature of *from* than *fra*. However, both prepositions provide a long list of correspondences in the translations (see Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2 English and Norwegian correspondences of *from* and *fra***

English correspondence of Norwegian <i>fra</i>	Frequency	Norwegian correspondence of English <i>from</i>	Frequency
from	193	Fra	162
zero-correspondence	59	zero-correspondence	50
of	15	av	32
down	10	ut av	13
out of	8	i	12
off	4	på	10
at	3	til	4
by	3	for	4
for	2	unna	4
in	2	hos	2
on	1	med	1
		mot	1
		utenfra	1
		gjennom	1

The English preposition *from* may be translated by different means: by such prepositions as *av* in (4.1), *på* in (4.2), *for* (in 4.3), *hos* (in 4.4), *til* (in 4.5) and some others.

4.1. When she asked her mother about this she saw, **from** the expression on her mother's face, that the older woman had been woken into grievous life by the reminiscence. (AB1)

Da hun spurte sin mor om dette, skjønte hun **av** morens ansiktsuttrykk at det vekket til live minner om en tung og vanskelig tid. (AB1T)

- 4.2. Brother Arie, provided he got the weekend off **from** the hotel in Hermanus where he worked as a waiter: his hair parted in the middle like an open Bible, and shiny with Brylcreem one could smell ten yards away. (ABR1)  
 Bror Arie, forutsatt at han fikk fri i helgen **på** hotellet i Hermanus der han jobbet som kelner; med midtskill i håret, lik en åpen Bibel, og skinnende av Brylkrem som du kunne lukte på ti meters avstand. (ABR1T)
- 4.3. The family's futile efforts to keep Aunt Cathérine hidden **from** the Sisters of the congregation and, for different reasons, **from** the Brethren. (ABR1)  
 Familiens forgjeves forsøk på å holde Tante Cathérine skjult **for** Søstrene i menigheten; og, av andre grunner, **for** Brødrene. (ABR1T)
- 4.4. So... could you find out **from** Weatherby's whether the horses can still run while the estate is subject to probate?" (DF1)  
 Så kanskje du kunne undersøke **hos** Weatherby om hestene kan fortsette å stille inntil skifteretten har godkjent testamentet?" (DF1T)
- 4.5. I am a believer in sensible choices, so different **from** many of my own. (MA1)  
 Jeg tror på fornuftige valg, i motsetning til mange **av** mine. (MA1T)

The corpus data also contain a large number of cases where *fra* is translated by items other than *from*. The most frequent among them are: zero correspondence which is accompanied by the use of different syntactic structures or by the restructuring of the whole sentence (in 4.6), *of* (in 4.7), *down* (in 4.8), *out of* (in 4.9), *off* (in 4.10). In a few cases the use of such prepositions as *on* (in 4.11) and *by* (in 4.12) as translation equivalents for *fra* can also be observed.

- 4.6. Det er et av disse nyåpnede spisestedene med dårlig plass og dårlig lys, imitert "atmosfæreskapende" interiør og intetsigende musikk **fra** bånd. (KF1)  
 It 's one of those newly opened restaurants with insufficient space and poor lighting, a fake, "atmosphere-creating" interior and inane canned music. (KF1T)
- 4.7. Raske Hjort trakk frem kniven og skar løs et lite stykke **fra** den hvite hardveden. (SH1)



Swift Deer took out his knife and cut off a small piece **of** the white hardwood.  
(SH1T)

- 4.8. Den gamle medisinmannen la trommen **fra** seg på bakken, åpnet skinnvesken og tok ut en liten pose med blomsterpollen. (SH1)

The old medicine man put the drum **down** on the ground, opened his leather bag and took out a smaller one filled with flower pollen. (SH1T)

- 4.9. "Da jeg plukket deg opp **fra** rennesteinen, så du ikke stort bedre ut enn grisene som henger på krok på kjølerommet mitt. (LSC2)

"When I plucked you out of the gutter, you did n't look much better than the hogs hanging on the hooks in my freezer. (LSC2T)

- 4.10. Fingrene klamret seg til stammen, neglene boret seg hardt inn i barken, og sakte halte han kroppen sin opp **fra** bakken. (SH1)

His fingers clutched at the trunk, his nails dug into the bark, and slowly he hauled his body **off** the ground. (SH1T)

- 4.11. Hansdals og hun hadde inngang **fra** samme side av tomannsboligen. (EG1)

The Hansdals' back door was **on** the same side as her own. (EG1T)

- 4.12. En Bibel lå oppslått under lyset **fra** lampen, og et bokmerke av sølv skinte nypusset mot dem. (EG2)

Within the circle of light cast **by** the lamp lay an open bible, with an ornate bookmark alongside it. (EG2T)

To conclude, *from* and *fra* share many of the same uses, i.e. *from* and *fra* have overlapping polysemy. The corresponding cognate is clearly the most frequently used translation equivalent for both prepositions. Still, there is a wide range of correspondences for Norwegian *fra* and English *from*. The cases of non-correspondence between *from* and *fra* may tentatively be explained by the following factors:

- *From* and *fra* are polysemous and may convey different meanings.
- *From* and *fra* are associated with native speakers' dissimilar mental models and in their spatial meaning may introduce different types of space.

- The syntactic functions of *from* and *fra* seem to be different. The English preposition *from* always demands a complement, while its Norwegian counterpart may function as a part of phrasal verb and operate without a complement. In some cases it may lead to syntactic restructuring of the sentence and, therefore, omission or replacement of the preposition.
- In bound uses of *from* and *fra* their own meanings are bleached and they are dependent on some specific word (words) in the context.
- Translation equivalence is a relative notion and the choice of the equivalent is often determined by a translator's individual interpretation.

The present study will consider these and possibly other factors to describe different uses of *from* and *fra* in English and Norwegian. The first step is to look at the mutual correspondence of the prepositions according to their semantic domain.

## **4.2. Distribution of *from* and *fra* according to meaning**

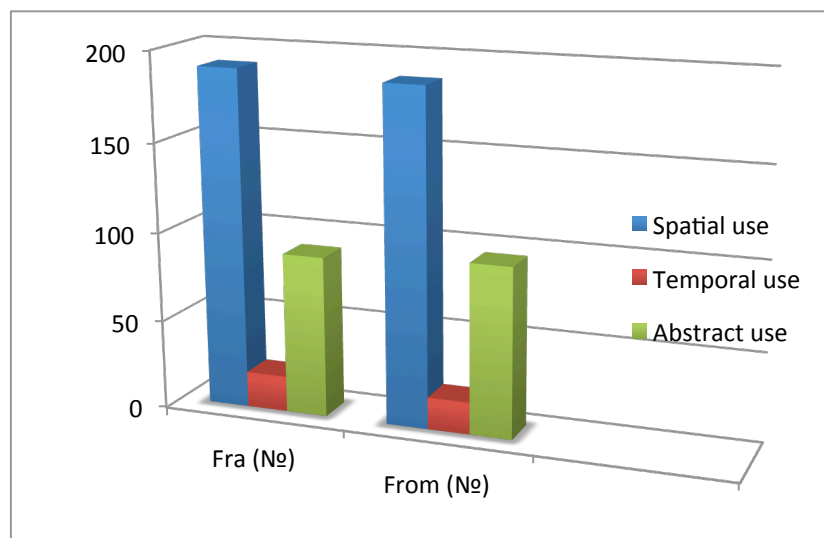
In order to answer the research question outlined in the introduction a corpus study has been conducted. The criteria used to differentiate between three semantic domains (spatial, temporal and abstract) combine linguistic and empirical information. It should be noted that a considerable amount of units (prepositions) are difficult to place into a specific category due to the extension of their meanings from prototypical to metaphorical. In this connection the dilemma arises of whether the preposition presents the prototypical meaning and thus should be placed in the spatial subclass, or whether its meaning is more metaphorical and thus belongs to the abstract subclass. The prepositions with temporal meaning are relatively easy

to establish and therefore they pose no problem to differentiate them from other domain subclasses. In order to facilitate disambiguation, all cases, where it is easy to establish the spatial traces in the meaning of prepositions and their geometrical characteristics are obvious, have been treated as spatial. The rest are considered to be abstract.

As was expected, data from the ENPC show that domination of spatial use of prepositions *from* and *fra* is the most frequent. The number of spatial occurrences is 190 for *fra* and 187 for *from* vs. 20 and 18 of temporal use and 90 and 95 of abstract use (Table 4.3, visualized in figure 4.1).

**Table 4.3 Distribution of the use of *from* and *fra* in the original texts**

	Fra (№)	From (№)	Fra (%)	From (%)
Spatial use	190	187	63	62
Temporal use	20	18	7	5
Abstract use	90	95	30	32



**Figure 4.1 Distribution of the use of *from* and *fra* in the original texts (cf. Table 4.3)**

It is notable that the distribution of *from* and *fra* with respect to domain types represents very similar in the two languages. The predominance of spatial use of the prepositions is determined by the fact that in these cases they express their prototypical meaning. Another interesting fact that drew my attention is a comparatively low frequency of temporal use of *from* and *fra* and rather high frequency of their abstract use. This seems to be connected with the stylistic peculiarities of fiction from which the examples are extracted. The language of fiction is more figurative, so it contains abstract images and provides new ways of perception of objects.

#### **4.2.1 Spatial use**

By treating the instances from the ENPC as a representative sample of the search output, I will mainly investigate the distribution of *from* and *fra* in the original texts according to the particular domain they are associated with and the way they are rendered in translations into the other language. At this point, the material will be analyzed according to how the prepositions have been translated in the target languages, in order to discover, from a quantitative and qualitative point of view, which and how many prepositions correspond to each other in the translation. Following the ranking list of the most frequently occurring uses of *from* and *fra*, the spatial domain appears to be predominant. This is doubtless one of the prepositions' most productive meanings since spatial use is a prototypical meaning and thus involves most of the cases where *from* and *fra* arise.

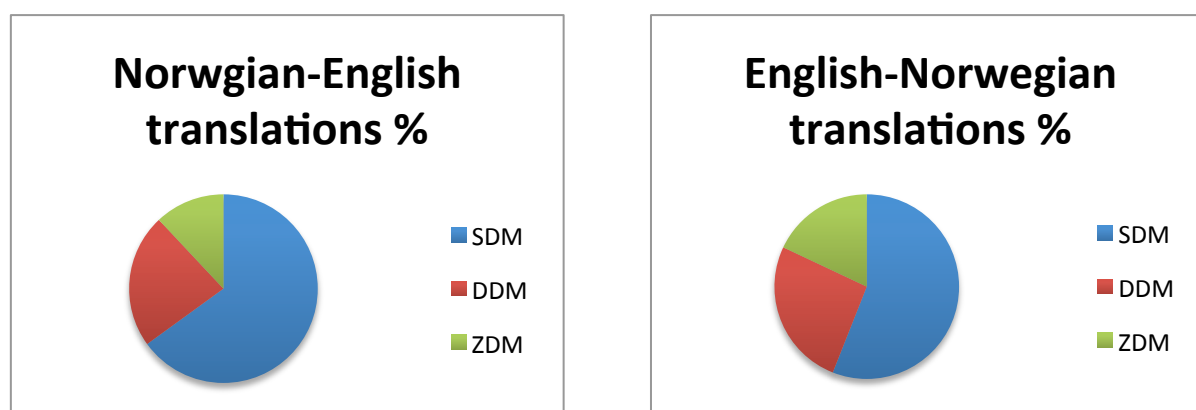
### 4.2.1.1 Distribution of Spatial Domain Mapping and Mutual Correspondence

As for correspondences of *from* and *fra* it should be noted that the common element in the meaning structure causes an overlap in the use of these two prepositions. The overlap is possible, though its occurrence and degree vary. In the languages concerned, some historical changes have occurred in the conceptualization of space. As a result of these changes, we can follow the slight differences in the meaning network of the prepositional category in each language.

The analysis of translation correspondences of *from* and *fra* was carried out, as was mentioned above, according to the types of conceptual mapping: Same Domain Mapping (SDM), Different Domain Mapping (DDM) and Zero Domain Mapping (ZDM). The results are shown in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4 Distribution of domain mapping in the translation**

	Norwegian-English translations		English-Norwegian translations	
	Nº	%	Nº	%
SDM	123	65	107	56
DDM	44	23	49	26
ZDM	23	12	31	18



**Figure 4.2 Distribution of domain mapping in translations (cf. Table 4.4)**

According to the data obtained from the analysis of domain mapping in translations, deviations are more typical in the English-Norwegian direction where the cases of DDM and ZDM are relatively higher. Nevertheless, the rather high proportion of SDM with the spatial *fra/from* in both directions of translation indicates that the prepositions mainly introduce similar types of space and the concept which licenses spatial uses of *fra* and *from* affords the most general expression of spatial relations between X (trajector) and Y (landmark). Despite the fact that SDM may imply different prepositions in translation the data in the table reflects only the cases where *fra* is translated as *from* and vice versa. This restriction has been made in order to employ these numbers for the MC calculations.

#### 4.2.1.1.1 Fra/From – SDM

Objectively, SDM is observed when *fra* and *from* denote: the initial place of residence as in (4.13, 4.14) or location of X, as in (4.15, 4.16); the starting point of X's movement (dynamic meaning), as in (4.17, 4.18); the starting point of the distance from X to Y (static meaning), as in (4.19, 4.20).

4.13. "Har De noen gang tenkt på hva det kan komme av at betydelige kunstnere, da særlig **fra** Skandinavia som De åpenbart kommer **fra**, ikke har noen stolthet over å være det de er? (FC1)

Have you ever wondered why important artists, especially **from** Scandinavia — where you obviously come **from** — have no pride in being what they are? (FC1T)

4.14. Then, towards the end of 1347, a small fleet of about a dozen Genoan galleys arrived in Sicily **from** somewhere far away, perhaps the Crimea, and within a few days the people of Messina began to die in their hundreds. (ABR1)

Så, mot slutten av 1347, kom en liten eskadre på vel et dusin galeier fra Genova til Sicilia **fra** et sted langt borte, kanskje Krim, og i løpet av noen få dager begynte folk i Messina å dø i hundrevis. (ABR1T)

4.15. Særlig barnas kommentarer til bildet av den drepte kvinnen og spekulasjoner om hun kunne ha vært voldtatt før hun ble stukket ned, gjorde ham likefrem kvalm, og til slutt reiste han seg bare **fra** kjøkkenbordet og gikk ut av huset uten å ha smurt noen matpakke og uten å si farvel, noe han forsåvidt sjelden eller aldri sa. (FC1)

Particularly the children's comments on the picture of the murdered woman, and their speculations about whether she was raped before she was stabbed, actually made him ill, and at last he just got up **from** the kitchen table and walked out of the house without preparing a lunch-pack and without saying goodbye — something, for that matter, he seldom or never said. (FC1T)

4.16. She came out **from** behind the counter. (AT1)

Hun kom frem **fra** bak disken. (AT1T)

4.17. I rekkehusene nedenfor kryr det av dagmammaer, unger og eldre, et evig tog til og **fra** supermarkedet. (KF1)

In the row houses down below there's a swarm of baby-sitters, kids and older people, an eternal procession to and **from** the supermarket. (KF1T)

4.18. Natalie said he 'd gone to London unexpectedly that morning, and had rung **from** a garage to say he 'd broken down on the motorway. (FW1)

Natalie sa at han hadde dratt til London uventet om formiddagen og hadde ringt **fra** et verksted og sagt at bilen hadde brutt sammen på motorveien. (FW1T)

4.19. Markedet er spreidd utover torg og gater med boder og butikker **fra** Rhôneelven til Saôneelven. (SL1)

The market with its stalls and shops stretches over squares and streets **from** the Rhône to the Saône. (SL1T)

4.20. And Dunbarton, the Harris' home, on the outskirts of Eddon Gurney, just eight miles **from** the Mast and halfway between Wells and Glastonbury, had the full benefit of it. (FW1)

Og Dunbarton, huset til Harris i utkanten av Eddon Gurney, akkurat tretten kilometer **fra** masten og midtveis mellom Wells og Glastonbury, hadde fullt utbytte av den. (FW1T)

It is remarkable that the use of another prepositions except for *from* and *fra* in translation does not imply DDM. The choice of a preposition is connected with different characteristics of Y in English and Norwegian as in (4.21), where *fra* specifies Y as a place of initial location of X while its equivalent *off* indicates separation from the material support (disapplication) (Reiman, 1982)..

4.21. Fingrene klamret seg til stammen, neglene boret seg hardt inn i barken, og sakte halte han kroppen sin opp **fra** bakken. (SH1)

His fingers clutched at the trunk, his nails dug into the bark, and slowly he hauled his body **off** the ground. (SH1T)

4.22. Alice took the fifty pounds **from** her pocket and gave them to Philip. (DL2)

Alice tok de femti pundene **ut av** lommen og ga dem til Philip. (DL2T)

In (4.22) the use of *ut av* as a translation correspondence for *from* is determined by the fact that Y (*lommen*) represents a sort of space having some inner volume. And the preposition *ut av* emphasizes moving away from the inner limited space which qualitatively and functionally differs from the space outside Y while *from* indicates the initial point of X.

Further analysis of the assembled material from the ENPC confirms that a simple one-to-one mapping between the corresponding Norwegian and English prepositions is not always displayed. Some examples illustrate non-correspondences in domain mapping in both directions of translation. That is, in translation deviations from the prototypical meaning of *from* and *fra* which is “moving away”/“separation” of X can be observed. Such non-correspondences may be caused by the translator’s intention to express some ideas according to his own understanding. Nevertheless, each case of DDM should be considered individually. Here are the most typical examples of DDM.



#### 4.2.1.1.2 Fra/From – DDM

In the Norwegian-English direction the number of cases of DDM is comparatively low. It comprises 23% while in the opposite direction of translation it is higher (26%). This fact may be explained by a higher degree of polysemy of *from*. Concerning the examples below, one can take notice of a different conceptualization of objects in the languages under consideration. For instance, in (4.23) *fra* denotes such relations between X and Y when *kjøleskapet* is considered as a point which the sound comes from while in English the preposition *of* does not express spatial relations but points to the relation of belonging. A similar association can be observed in (4.24).

4.23. Det var så stille i huset at han hørte duren **fra** kjøleskapet ute i kjøkkenet, i det fjerne lyden av brenningene mot stranden og en måke som hvinte. (OEL1)

It was so quiet in the house that he could hear the throbbing **of** the refrigerator out in the kitchen, in the distance the sound of the breakers on the shore and the cry of a seagull. (OEL1T)

4.24. Om sommeren vokste alt seg stort og vakkert, og Tordensønnen kjente duften **fra** fargesprakende blomstersletter. (SH1)

In summer everything was flowering and beautiful and Son-of-Thunder savoured the scent **of** the bright prairie blooms. (SH1T)

4.25. De drapene som var begått med pistol — vi fant fram til kulene **fra** tre av dem. (GS1)

That was to concentrate on the murders that had been carried out with a pistol — we found the bullets that had been used **in** three of those cases. (GS1T)

The use of the preposition *in* in translation as in (4.25) is caused by the fact that the prepositions *fra* and *in* are associated with the objects possessing different characteristics. In

the original the preposition *fra* denotes the point of the initial dislocation of X (*tre av dem*) while in translation *in* (*in three of those cases*) does not denote any spatial relations between X and Y.

The examples below illustrate a different structuring of space and an apparent discrepancy between categorization and description of spatial properties of Y in English and Norwegian. In particular, *from* in (4.26) points to the moving away of X (*a handkerchief*) from Y where Y (*handbag*) is the place of X's initial location. In translation, the preposition *i*, points to the distinct sort of spatial scene that involves the prototypical spatial lexical concept: (enclosure), associated with *in*, and which hence encodes the parameter "containment" (*håndvesken*). In (4.27) a different structuring of space introduced by *from* and corresponsce *til* is observed. In the English original *from* indicates such relations between X and Y where Y (*the person*) is the starting point of the distance to X. In the Norwegian translation Y (*det mennesket*), on the contrary, is associated with the ultimate point with a quite different spatial scene being presented. The typical interpretation is that X is directed with respect to Y, where Y is not the focused end point, but simply provides a means of referencing the general direction with respect to which X is oriented.

4.26. The Queen took a handkerchief **from** her handbag and wiped the dewdrop away. (ST1)

Dronningen fant et lommetørkle **i** håndvesken og strøk dråpen bort. (ST1T)

4.27. Arms that never embraced me, lips that never touched mine, sleepless nights spent light-years away **from** the person lying at my side in the darkness, and who had been lying there night after night. (FC1)

Armer som aldri omfavnet meg, lepper som aldri berørte mine egne, våkenetter med lysårs avstand **til** det mennesket som lå ved siden av meg i mørket, og som hadde ligget der natt etter natt. (FC1T)

#### 4.2.1.1.3 Fra/From – ZDM

In general the cases of ZDM are caused by the use of different syntactic structures in translation where the preposition is unnecessary, by using different syntactical patterns or by restructuring the whole sentence, as in (4.28) where *fra tante Ria* is translated as *Aunt Ria's*. In this case the prepositional phrase is replaced by the possessive construction where the preposition is unnecessary. In (4.29) the preposition *fra* is omitted in the translation. In (4.30) the absence of the preposition is explained by the lexical replacement where *fra side til side* is replaced by the verb *rocked*.

4.28. Det var en Nina som med vilje knuste det fine askebegeret **fra** tante Ria.  
(THA1)

There was a Nina who deliberately broke Aunt Ria's fine ashtray. (THA1T)

4.29. **Fra** barneskolen," la hun til. (OEL1)

Primary school," she added. (OEL1T)

4.30. De slo armene rundt meg og vugget meg **fra** side til side, kysset meg på ørene, på øynene, på munnen. (SL1)

They put their arms round me and rocked me, kissed my ears, my eyes and mouth. (SL1T)

The frequency of ZDM in the ENPC in the English-Norwegian direction has proved to be rather high. It comprises 31% of all spatial cases. The following examples show that translators avoid literal translation and use different linguistic means to express the idea implicated in the sentence, therefore the images of the source text rather than facts are rendered. This has resulted in the use of different translation transformations. For instance, in (4.31) the prepositional phrase *from his chair* is omitted. In (4.32) the noun phrase *topaz from Brazil* is translated by the attributive phrase *brasiliansk topas*, thus, in this case the

replacement of parts of speech is used.

4.31. Then he pushed himself up **from** his chair and lumbered past me down the porch steps and into the darkness. (JSM1)

Så reiste han seg tungt og klampet forbi meg ned trappa og ut I mørket. (JSM1T)

4.32. "They're not radioactive afterwards, but Mr Franklin was once accidentally sent a batch of topaz **from** Brazil that had been irradiated in a nuclear reactor and the stones were bordering on dangerous. (DF1)

"De blir ikke radioaktive etterpå, men en gang fikk Franklin ved et uhell tilsendt et parti brasiliansk topas som var bestrålt i en atomreaktor, og som lå oppunder faregrensen. (DF1T)

The MC of spatial *from* and *fra* is 61 %. Such a relatively high MC may indicate that the prepositions happen to be available in both languages to express spatial relations. The non-correspondences between *from* and *fra* in the cases of spatial use are of twofold characteristics: they are caused either by linguistic factors (polysemy of prepositions) or by different ways of conceptualization of the same objects by the speaker's community. In some cases, a visual image that occurs with the spatial relations being perceived, has strong national and cultural traits. The content of spatial concepts is not restricted to the description of geometric parameters of a scene but is sometimes individually determined.

## 4.2.2 Temporal use

### 4.2.2.1 Distribution of Temporal Domain and Mutual Correspondence

The corpus data collected seem to support the hypothesis that temporal use of *from* and *fra*

can be associated with one prototypical temporal relation, and that deviations from the prototype in translation can be explained by the occurrences of a different semantic pattern. The prototypical temporal meaning is in this thesis understood as actively derived from the relational structure of the corresponding spatial meaning through processes of cross-domain alignment and projection. Consequently, an interpretation of temporal meaning of *from* and *fra* necessarily involves structuring the concept of a moment in time in terms of the concept of a starting point on a time line.

As mentioned above, I consider *from* and *fra* as being temporal when they introduce timexes that may denote date, time and event. The preliminary calculation showed that the use of temporal *from* and *fra* in the ENPC is not frequent; the number of temporal *fra* is higher than that of *from*. Table 4.5 shows the distribution in the ENPC data according to the type of timex.

**Table 4.5 Distribution of temporal *from* and *fra* according to the type of timex**

	Fra		From	
	Nº	%	Nº	%
Date	2	10	1	9
Time	12	60	11	61
Event	6	30	6	30

The material from the ENPC indicates that although the absolute frequencies of temporal uses of *from* and *fra* differ between the languages, the proportional distribution of timexes introduced by temporal *from* and *fra* is fairly similar. In both languages the timexes expressing time dominate (cf. examples 4.33, 4.34) while the frequency of timexes expressing event is rather low (4.35). The analysis of the ENPC reveals three occurrences of the timexes denoting date in both directions (4.36).

4.33. Når han fortalte **fra** den tiden, var det som om han glemte den skjevklemt skulderen han til vanlig prøvde å skjule under trøya. (HW1)

When he was telling stories **from** those days, he seemed to forget the damaged shoulder he usually tried to hide under his jacket. (HW1T)

4.34. **From** then on, every afternoon, as soon as her mother had left for bingo, Matilda would toddle down to the library. (RD1)

**Fra** den dagen tuslet Matilda av sted til biblioteket hver eneste ettermiddag straks moren hennes hadde dratt på bingo. (RD1T)

4.35. Og har handlet om så lenge hun kan huske, **fra** hun gikk ut av skolen, hele tiden hun bodde hjemme og ønsket seg vekk, ønsket seg noe annet, andre ting rundt seg, andre klær, andre mennesker. (BV2)

And has been happening as long as she can remember, **from** when she left school, the whole time she lived at home and wished herself somewhere else, wished for something else, other things around her, other clothes, other people. (BV2T)

4.36. INNTRYKK **FRA** 1943 (CL1)

IMPRESSIONS **FROM** 1943 (CL1T)

Temporal reference is expressed by time-denoting expressions in two ways: indexically (expressions that can only be evaluated via a given index time), as in (4.37) and vaguely (expressions that are difficult to precisely place the information expressed on a time line, i.e. they are not represented by points or exact intervals in time), as in (4.38).

4.37. Jeg skal sitte på deg **fra** nå av til evigheter skiller oss ad. (SL1)

I'll sit on you **from** now on till eternity parts us. (SL1T)

4.38. **From** a very early age I knew what lay at the heart of the matter. (TH1)

Allerede **fra** ganske ung alder av var jeg klar over hva som lå bak alt dette. (TH1T)

The preliminary observation of translation correspondences between temporal *from* and *fra* indicates that a substantial number of these prepositions have congruent correspondences (Table 4.6).

**Table 4.6 Distribution of temporal domain mapping in the translation**

	Norwegian-English translations		English-Norwegian translations	
	Nº	%	Nº	%
SDM	17	85	14	77
DDM	3	15	1	6
ZDM	0	0	3	17

#### **4.2.2.1.1 Fra/From – SDM**

The high proportion of SDM in both directions of translation testifies to the fact that the prototypical element in the meaning structure of the prepositions is retained in translation (as in 4.39, 4.40, 4.41, 4.42) where *from* and *fra* indicate a starting point on a time line associated with the timex of time in (4.39, 4.40) and with the timex of event (4.41, 4.42). The cases of DDM and ZDM are to be considered individually.

4.39. Nederst i bokhyllen lå det noen gamle ukeblad, og over dem sto det en håndfull bøker, sannsynligvis **fra** hennes barndom. (FC1)

Some old weekly magazines were lying at the bottom of the bookcase, and above them stood a handful of books, probably **from** her childhood. (FC1T)

4.40. Would it all be cleared up and decided by the time I saw him again, two or three weeks **from** now? (ABR1)

Kom alt til å være klart og avgjort når jeg igjen traff ham, to eller tre uker **fra** nå av? (ABR1T)

4.41. Han ledet krigerne på raid og krigsferder **fra** seier til seier, og de vendte hjem med kveg, hester og gaver til alle. (SH1)

He led the braves on raids and in battle **from** victory to victory, and they came home with cattle, horses and gifts for all. (SH1T)

4.42. There, **from** the moment he arrived, he was an object of suspicion and sneaky ridicule in a revolutionary court intrigue brewing all around him of which only he, the philosopher from Athens, was oblivious. (JH1)

Der ble han **fra** første stund gjort til gjenstand for mistro og lumske latterliggjøring i en opprørske hoffintrige som var under oppseiling og som bare han, filosofen fra Aten, var intetanende om. (JH1T)

In the example (4.43) the divergence between *fra* and *from* is observed. Though the SDM is preserved in the target language, another preposition operates to create the same image in the translation. The preposition *at* in the English translation creates quite a different scene where it precisely indicates the point on the time line. The translator's choice here seems to be motivated by his intention to emphasize the significance of the specific moment in time. This example illustrates a different perception of temporal viewpoints by the author and the translator.

4.43. En brevveksling mellom Scott og Shackleton **fra** dette tidsrommet har noe ampert over seg, en amperhet mellom linjene. (KH1)

If we read between the lines of letters between Shackleton and Scott **at** this time, we can detect a certain irritability. (KH1T)

#### 4.2.2.1.2 Fra/from –DDM

This group is presented by the only one example (4.44), where the substitution of the



conceptual domains finds place in the translation. The prototypical value of the temporal preposition *fra* in the source text remains fairly evident. The abstract preposition *of* in the translation text, contrary to *fra*, points to the relation to the event ('war') rather than indicates a time moment. Such replacement, in all likelihood, has been caused by the translator's preference to a more lexically empty preposition. But on the other hand, the choice can be determined by the general tendency to use prepositions with less differentiated meanings (see section 2.1).

4.44. "Da husker du ikke noe **fra** krigen?" (GS1)

"So you don't remember anything **of** the war?" (GS1T)

#### 4.2.2.1.3 Fra/from –ZDM

The ZDM group represents translation procedures which can be observed only in the English-Norwegian direction. Such deviations may arise from different reasons. For example, (4.45), (4.46) illustrate the use of omission of the preposition in the translation as a result of the sentence restructuring, so some patterns have been reduced.

4.45. "We come a long way **from** the time the old folks told us babies were mailed from heaven. (GN1)

"Jomen er det en stund siden den gangen de gamle fortalte oss at barn ble sendt fra himmelen. (GN1T)

4.46. "They 're not radioactive afterwards, but Mr Franklin was once accidentally sent a batch of topaz **from** Brazil that had been irradiated in a nuclear reactor and the stones were bordering on dangerous. (DF1)

"De blir ikke radioaktive etterpå, men en gang fikk Franklin ved et uhell  
tilsendt et parti brasiliansk topas som var bestrålt i en atomreaktor, og som lå  
oppunder faregrensen. (DF1T)

The overwhelming majority of SDM gives a MC of temporal prepositions of 84%. This MC value shows that in most of the cases of temporal use the prototypical meaning of the prepositions *from* and *fra* is retained in translation and is rendered by congruent units. The cases of non-correspondences can be explained by pure linguistic factors, by different conceptualization of objects in English and Norwegian or by the individual intention of a translator.

### 4.2.3 Abstract use

A set of basic spatial and temporal meanings which can be expressed by the prepositions *from* and *fra* has been set up as a prerequisite for the analysis of meaning extensions into domains other than the spatial one. The reason for proceeding thus is the assumption – based on the theoretical grounds discussed in chapter 2 – that meaning extensions are expected to go from the domain of space to other domains. In this section the cases of meaning extensions to the abstract category will be examined. As concerns abstract relations the significance of the prepositions *from* and *fra* emerges when the properties of the connected items are taken into consideration. Intuitively, the idiomatic uses of the contrasting prepositions do not match consistently, that is to say a general tendency of metaphorical items across languages, i.e. *from the past* – *i fortiden*, *from the beginning* – *I utgangspunktet*.

In what follows, I have structured my analysis as follows: a first classification of the data was

carried out along the lines of abstract meanings expressed by the prepositions *from* and *fra* based on the set of meanings provided by Dirven (1993) and extended by Lindstromberg (2010), a second classification was carried out according to the type of domain mapping to finally carry out the MC calculations. Dirven's and Lindstromberg's classifications include such abstract meanings of the preposition *from* as agent, cause, source, constituent/ingredient, dispossession, evidence/logical grounds, exception (in combination with *apart* and *bortsett* respectively). As regards the Norwegian preposition an additional grammatical category has been identified, the meaning of possession (genitive case) (Faarlund et al, 1997:). On this account, with the stipulation that differences may exist as far as different conceptualization of the objects and choice of alternatives in the translations, the comparative material has been analysed. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7 Abstract use of *fra* and *from* in the Norwegian and English source texts**

Abstract meaning	<i>Fra</i> in source texts (№)	<i>From</i> in source texts (№)
Agent	-	1
Cause	2	7
Source	32	26
Constituent/Ingredient	-	3
Dispossession	3	4
Evidence/Logical grounds	1	3
Exception	12	8
Possession	1	-
Other	39	43

As shown in table 4.7, the proportion of abstract meanings of the prepositions *from* and *fra* is different in the Norwegian and English source texts. The most frequent abstract meanings of the preposition *fra* have proved to be as follows: source, dispossession and exception. Such meanings as *agent* and *constituent* are not represented at all. But on the other hand, the abstract meaning of *possession* is characteristic of Norwegian and never occurs in English (4.47). As for the English source texts, they represent a greater variety of abstract meanings.

This difference may be explained by the fact that the meanings which are not represented in the Norwegian texts are not typical of the preposition *fra* and that the preposition *from* has undergone a greater shift in terms of meaning extension. However, it is possible that some other cases of meaning extension of *fra* may occur and the represented ones happen to be so only in the present material. An interesting tendency emerges from the table. Though *from* exhibits a greater variability of meanings, the number of occurrences is surprisingly low. The most frequently used groups are *source*, *exception* and *cause*. In this connection it is necessary to dwell on the group *other*. As a matter of fact, some cases of abstract use of the prepositions *from* and *fra* were hard to categorize as in (4.48 - 4.50). This group includes the examples illustrating different degrees of meaning extension of *from* and *fra*.

4.47. Det var nettopp Yvettes lettsindighet — som kom til uttrykk i hennes ubekymrede likegyldighet overfor kravene **fra** en forretningsvirksomhet i stadig vekst — som virket så forlokkende på Hartmann; den og hennes utsøkte fremtreden. (AB1)

It was Yvette's very frivolousness — expressed in her blithe indifference to the demands **of** a growing business — that seduced Hartmann, that and her excellent presentation. (AB1T)

4.48. He had long ago learned the pleasures of sobriety, of extracting the essence **from** the example, of attaining and completing rather than striving and collapsing. (AB1)

Han hadde for lenge siden lært gleden ved nøkternhet, ved å trekke ut essensen **fra** eksemplet, ved å oppnå og fullføre, heller enn å strebe og bryte sammen. (AB1T)

4.49. Her var den, den uhyggelige, svarte fuglen **fra** marerittene hennes. (MN1)

Here it was, the sinister black bird **from** her nightmares. (MN1T)

4.50. Jenny sitter og halvdømmer på trikken, tynt vintersolllys glir inn **fra** sidegatene og gir det mørke, beske ansiktet et tilgivende uttrykk, som om hun akkurat da har forsonet seg med det meste. (BV1)

Jenny sits daydreaming on the tram, thin winter sunlight slides in **from** the side-streets and gives to her dark, bitter face a forgiving expression, as if at that very moment she had reconciled herself with most things. (BV1T)

As is seen from the examples, so-called “spatial metaphor” (Stepanova, 2006) takes place here. Spatial metaphor is understood as a context in which the preposition acquires spatial metaphorical meaning, i.e. the metaphorical meaning is acquired as a result of unusual combination of spatial metaphor components, including the concordance of names of abstract semantics and specific action verbs. According to Lakoff, “metaphorical transfer is a representation of a situation of one type through the prism of another one” (Lakoff, 1993). For example, in (4.48) *extracting the essence **from** the example* (*trekke ut essensen **fra** eksemplet*) the combination of *from* (*fra*) with the abstract noun *example* (*eksemplet*) leads to the formation of metaphorical (mental) space. The structure *verb + fra (from) + abstract noun* is typical of such cases. In (4.49) we can observe the same phenomenon. A highly figurative use of the prepositions is illustrated by (4.50): *sunlight slides in from the side-streets* (*vintersollys glir inn fra sidegatene*). Personification of the sunlight by means of the use of the verb *slide* (*glir*) makes it possible to create a metaphorical image of the expression. Other interesting cases of forming spatial metaphor is shown in (4.51, 4.52).

4.51. Og etter lunsj, som han foretrakk å spise alene, kunne han nå unne seg å gå en liten tur i solen, en glede som ikke var blitt ham forunt den gangen det virket som om solen aldri skinte, da det eneste tilfluktsstedet **fra** den hardpakkede, skitne sneen var ved tante Maries lille elektriske varmeovn. (AB1)

And after his lunch, which he preferred to take alone, he could now afford to wander a little in the sun, a pleasure denied to him in those days when the sun had never seemed to shine at all, when the only refuge **from** the hard-packed dirty snow was the single bar of Aunt Marie's electric fire. (AB1T)

4.52. Ted rescued Evelyn **from** a period of terrifying loneliness; she had miscalculated her own strength, in going out alone straight from college to Africa, but was too proud to admit it. (MD1)

Ted reddet Evelyn **fra** en periode med forferdende ensomhet. Hun hadde feilvurdert sin egen styrke da hun dro ut alene, rett fra college til Afrika, men hun var altfor stolt til å innrømme det. (MD1T)

In the examples above spatial metaphor is created differently. The notion of moving away from the concrete things is transferred to the abstract notions of deliverance from danger, burden, illness, everything unwilling, unpleasant, threatening. Actually, on the basis of the ENPC data, this type of spatial metaphor seems to be characteristic mainly for the English preposition *from*. The verbs commonly used with this pattern are: *keep, restrain, drive, move, restrict, constrain, refuge etc.* In Norwegian they are: *hindre, kjøre, flytte*. It is notable that conceptual metaphors are not perceived as such and are used automatically (trait metaphors). The findings suggest that one aspect of spatial preposition meaning, direction from the locus, is retained when these prepositions are used abstractly. In this regard it should be emphasized that the use of the prepositions *fra* and *from* is not highly figurative and idiomatic compared to some other prepositions (e.g. *in, on, at*). However, there are cases that seem to illustrate such usage (4.53).

4.53. "**From** time to time we had a weekend off. (ABR1)

"**Fra** tid til annen fikk vi fri en helg. (ABR1T)

#### 4.2.3.1 Distribution of Abstract Domain Mapping and Mutual Correspondence

A further step in the present research is the analysis of the abstract domain mapping which makes it possible to reveal the cases of non-correspondences and their frequency and analyze

their semantic and translation peculiarities. The analysis was carried out according to the scheme that was used in the previous sections with the analysis of spatial and temporal domains being conducted (Table 4.8), including Same Domain Mapping (SDM), Different Domain Mapping (DDM) and Zero Domain Mapping (ZDM).

**Table 4.8 Distribution of abstract domain mapping**

	Fra-From						From-Fra					
	SDM		DDM		ZDM		SDM		DDM		ZDM	
	N <sub>0</sub>	%	N <sub>0</sub>	%	N <sub>0</sub>	%	N <sub>0</sub>	%	N <sub>0</sub>	%	N <sub>0</sub>	%
Agent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Cause	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	2	28	5	72
Source	22	69	4	12	6	19	13	50	10	38	3	12
Constituent	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	33	2	67	-	-
Dispossession	2	67	-	-	1	33	3	75	1	25	-	-
Evidence	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-
Exception	6	50	5	42	1	8	8	100	-	-	-	-
Possession	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	23	59	6	15	10	26	17	40	17	40	9	20

#### 4.2.3.1.1 Norwegian - English translations

Admittedly the figures in all categories are relatively low, and it will be hard to draw any firm conclusion. Nevertheless, in the Norwegian-English direction the highest frequency of SDM can be observed in *Other*, *Exception* and *Source* groups (4.54, 4.55, 4.56). In the *Dispossession* group it is a little lower (SDM implies that the abstract meaning of the preposition in the source text is retained in the translation).

4.54. Flammene **fra** bålet varmet ansiktene og hendene. (KAL1)

The flames **from** the fire warmed their hands and faces. (KAL1T)

4.55. Aldri tok vi noe **fra** folk som levde av sitt eget arbeid. (JM1)

We never took anything **from** people who made a living by their own work.  
(JM1T)

4.56. Kan lukke øya og huske de underligste detaljer **fra** plasser jeg har seilt for ti-femten år sia. (JM1)

I can close my eyes and remember the strangest details **from** places I sailed to ten or fifteen years ago, can somehow *look out* over the world. (JM1T)

4.57. Bortsett **fra** et par små-fjell som kom strykende sørover for vind og straum kunne vi ikke se is. (JM1)

Apart **from** a couple of small bergs moving rapidly with wind and currents, we could see no ice, and the edge of the pack ice was out of sight all the time. (JM1T)

4.58. Ut **fra** alt hun hørte vokste det frem en slags vemmelig erkjennelse at mamma også var en del av den. (HW1)

**From** everything she heard, she had a sickening feeling that Mama was also a part of it. (HW1T)

In (4.54) the preposition *fra* expresses such relations between X and Y where Y (bålet/ fire) represents the source of X (flammene/flames). It is rendered into English by the corresponding preposition *from*. The *Exception* group is represented by the cases where the preposition *fra* is used in the combination with the adverb *bortsett* as in (4.57.) Most of the cases are rendered into English by the equivalent *apart from*. It is notable that the only case of the abstract meaning *Evidence* is represented by SDM in translation (4.58). The high index of SDM in these groups gives evidence that both in Norwegian and in English the objects under consideration are conceptualized in a similar way and the prepositions *fra* and *from* render the same meanings.

The cases of DDM imply that the preposition *fra* is rendered into English by different prepositions which create a different metaphorical space. The DDM cases are represented in all the groups except for the *Dispossession* group where one can observe only instances of SDM and ZDM. It is interesting that the *Cause* and *Evidence* groups include exclusively the examples of DDM. To provide some insight into the DDM manifestation, consider the cases



of DDM for each group. For example, in the *Source* group *fra* is translated by the following prepositions: *by* (4.59.) and *of* (4.60).

4.59. En Bibel lå oppslått under lyset **fra** lampen, og et bokmerke av sølv skinte nypusset mot dem. (EG2)

Within the circle of light cast by the lamp lay an open bible, with an ornate bookmark alongside it. (EG2T)

4.60. Min drøm, Istanbul, med hete, folkemasser, smale, overbygde fortau, larm **fra** mennesker og dyr: Istanbul, hvor jeg aldri har vært. (KF1)

My dream, Istanbul, with heat, crowds, narrow covered sidewalks, noise **of** people and animals: Istanbul, where I 've never been. (KF1T)

The *Cause* group is represented only by the cases of DDM where the prepositions *on* (4.61) and *for* (4.62) are used in translations.

4.61. Jeg handlet ut **fra** en viljebeslutning, og å gjøre det er nær sagt det eneste som gjør oss spesifikt menneskelige." (KA1)

I acted **on** a conscious decision, and to do that is practically the only thing which makes us specifically human." (KA1T)

4.62. Han var kjent og elsket **fra** utallige fjernsynsprogrammer med forelesninger om Vatikanets mange kunstsatter. (JW1)

He was known and loved **for** countless television lectures on the many art treasures of the Vatican, and his strength lay not least in his ability to find the words to describe a painting's qualities. (JW1T)

From the point of view of translation the *Exception* group cannot be characterized as variable. DDM is actualized by such equivalents as *except* (4.63) and *except for* (4.64)

4.63. Han hadde glemt alt bortsett **fra** at det var en feil på spissgatterens

konstruksjon, at den alltid dro ut mot høyre, en umulig regattabåt som han solgte i løpet av noen måneder. (OEL1)

He had forgotten everything except that there had been a fault in the way the double-ender was constructed, that it always pulled out to the right, a boat useless for regattas, and he had sold it after a few months. (OEL1T)

4.64. Nesten aldri bøker bortsett **fra** oppslagsverk (uåpnede) og serier i lik innbinding (motvillig innkjøpt hos en omreisende representant **fra** et stort forlag, til favørpris). (KF1)

Almost no books, except **for** reference works (unopened) and series in identical bindings (reluctantly purchased from the traveling salesman of a large publisher at a special price). (KF1T)

ZDM means that the abstract meaning originally expressed by the preposition in the source text is not retained in the translation. Actually, ZDM is manifested in the omission of the preposition and the use of different semantic and syntactical structures. In some groups, such as *Source* (4.65) and *Other* (4.66), ZDM cases are rather frequent in contrast to the *Dispossession* (4.67) and *Exception groups* (4.68.) where one case of ZDM in each group has been revealed. In the *Cause* and *Evidence* groups the examples of ZDM are not represented at all.

4.65. Det er et av disse nyåpnede spisestedene med dårlig plass og dårlig lys, imitert "atmosfæreskapende" interiør og intetsigende musikk **fra** bånd. (KF1)

It 's one of those newly opened restaurants with insufficient space and poor lighting, a fake, "atmosphere-creating" interior and inane canned music. (KF1T)

4.66. Og nå er jeg reist **fra** hele greia, fordi jeg ikke holdt ut." (EHA1)

And now I've left the whole business because I couldn't take it." (EHA1T)

4.67. Solen hadde gått **fra** dem. (CL1)

The sun had left them. (CL1T)

- 4.68. Det vil kan hende virke heldig for de andre om vi er venner, rent bortsett **fra** at jeg personlig vil føle det som en ære å være Deres venn — " (KH1)  
 It would create a good impression if we were friends, and besides, I personally would consider it an honour..." (KH1T)

The examples above illustrate the following ways of expressing ZDM in translation: the use of different syntactic structures, as in (4.65) where the prepositional phrase is replaced by an attributive group; the use of a verb which do not require a preposition, as in (4.66) and (4.67); the use of another part of speech (*besides*) instead of the preposition, as in (4.68).

#### 4.2.3.1.2 English – Norwegian translations

I turn now to the analysis of the Norwegian translations of *from* in abstract uses as found in English source texts. In terms of domain mapping distribution the English-Norwegian direction paints quite a different picture, with the exception of SDM where it is similar with that of the Norwegian-English direction. The highest frequency (according to the number of SDM cases) is manifested in such groups as *Source* (4.69), *Other* (4.70) and *Exception* (4.71).

- 4.69 Alice lay as stiff as a rod, staring at the shadowed ceiling where lights **from** the cars in the road fled and chased, her ears assaulted, her mind appalled. (DL2)  
 Alice lå stiv som en stokk og stirret opp i taket, der lys **fra** billykter flyktet og jagde hverandre, ørene hennes prøvde å lukke seg mot angrepet, hun prøvde å lukke seg, i avsky. (DL2T)
- 4.70. Of these Major Francis Cornish was the most persistent, though he was far **from** being her favourite. (RDA1)  
 Av disse var major Francis Cornish den mest iherdige, selv om han langt **fra** var hennes favoritt. (RDA1T)

- 4.71. But such a thing is difficult if only because, **apart from** anything else, the woman without children is so very different from the woman with. (FW1)  
 Men noe slikt er vanskelig, om ikke annet så fordi, **bortsett fra** alt annet, en kvinne uten barn er så helt forskjellig fra en kvinne med. (FW1T)

In percentage the highest SDM index (100%) is observed in the *Exception* group. This means that this abstract meaning is typical of both English and Norwegian. In fact, the English phrase *apart from* has the stable Norwegian equivalent *bortsett fra* in all the occurrences. In the Dispossession group SDM is observed in three of four cases extracted from the ENPC (4.72). The group *Constituent* (4.72) is represented by the only case of SDM (4.73).

- 4.72. It was the custom of Rembrandt's respected art dealer to borrow money **from** all of his artists who had it to lend and to recommend them in return to the merchants and professionals of Amsterdam who were fertile sources of commissions for paintings. (JH1)  
 Rembrandts ansette kunsthändler hadde for vane å låne penger **fra** alle sine kunstnere som hadde noen og til gjengjeld anbefale dem overfor kjøpmenn og folk fra de frie yrker, som var fruktbare kilder for bestillinger på malerier. (JH1T)
- 4.73. They eat food pellets **from** hoppers in their cages and drink from bottles fitted with eyedroppers. (MA1)  
 De spiser matkuler **fra** en traktbeholder i burene og drikker av flasker påsatt dråpeteller. (MA1T)

The rest of the groups exhibit no cases of SDM. This suggests that the overall SDM prevalence in the English-Norwegian direction is very low, much lower than in the Norwegian-English direction. Therefore, *from*, in the abstract use, seems to be more polysemous than *fra*. This, in its turn, explains the variety of DDM in the English-Norwegian

direction. In percentage, the highest indexes of DDM tend to characterize the *Constituent* (4.74, 4.75), *Evidence* (4.76) and *Other* groups.

4.74. And whenever there is more money to be made **from** money than from anything else, the energies of the state are likely to be devoted increasingly to the production of money, for which there is no community need, to the exclusion of those commodities that are required for health, physical well-being, and contemplation. (JH1)

Og hver gang det er mer penger å tjene **på** penger enn på noe annet, er det sannsynlig at statens krefter mer og mer rettes mot produksjon av penger, som det ikke er noe samfunnsmessig behov for, til fortrenghelse for de varene som kreves for helse, fysisk velvære og fordypelse. (JH1T)

4.75. He had a ring of his own, of which he was very proud, made **from** a gold sovereign he 'd found in the old King's Pond Sewer; he and his mates were a friendly lot. (MD1)

Han hadde en ring selv som han var meget stolt av. Den var laget **av** en gullmynt han hadde funnet i den gamle King's Pond-kloakken. Han og kameratene var en hyggelig gjeng. (MD1T)

4.76. I gathered **from** their nocturnal whisperings that their son had died in a road accident. (BO1)

**Av** den nattlige hviskingen mellom dem skjønte jeg at sønnen deres var død i en trafikkulykke. (BO1T)

In the group *Constituent* two variants of DDM are represented. The preposition *from* is rendered as *på* (4.74) and as *av* (4.75). The former example exhibits an interesting case of transformation of space metaphor in translation. In the original *money* is represented as the initial and the ultimate state of the object while in translation *penger* is the source and the ultimate state of the object. As for the *Evidence* group, in all the cases the preposition *from* is rendered by the Norwegian *av*.

A higher variability of DDM is noticed in the *Other* group where such translation variants as *av* (4.77), *for* (4.78), *i* (4.79) and *til* (4.80) are observed.

4.77. The crowd, awoken **from** the spell, broke up into numerous voices. (BO1)

Mengden våknet **av** forhekselsen og begynte å snakke i munnen på hverandre. (BO1T)

4.78. Aila understood everything, even the things he did n't intend to bring up all at once; he could keep nothing **from** her, her quiet absorbed his subsumed half-thoughts, hesitations, disguising or dissembling facial expressions, and fitted together the missing sense. (NG1)

Aila forstod alt, også ting han ennå ikke hadde tenkt å si. Han kunne ikke holde noe skjult **for** henne, hennes ro sugde til seg hans ennå halvtenkte tanker, hans nøling og ansiktsuttrykk og satte det sammen til en helhet. (NG1T)

4.79. "I won't keep you **from** yer work any longer." (MM1)

— Jeg skal ikke hefte deg **i** arbeidet lenger. (MM1T)

4.80. Paul was gazing at me across the flames, and it struck me then how differently the night was turning out **from** what I had expected. (TH1)

Paul stirret på meg gjennom flammene, og akkurat da slo det meg hvor annerledes denne kvelden var blitt i forhold **til** det jeg hadde ventet meg. (TH1T)

In spite of the fact that the *Other* group is nearly the largest, the variability of DDM in it is very low. Only two translation variants have been revealed. The preposition *from* is rendered as *hos* (4.81) and *av* (4.82).

4.81. So... could you find out **from** Weatherby's whether the horses can still run while the estate is subject to probate?" (DF1)

Så kanskje du kunne undersøke **hos** Weatherby om hestene kan fortsette å stille inntil skifteretten har godkjent testamentet?" (DF1T)

4.82. The death of a happy marriage, Aristotle knew **from** experience, is no small thing, nor is the death of three children. (JH1)

Et lykkelig ekteskaps død, det visste Aristoteles **av** erfaring, er ikke noe å blåse av, og det er heller ikke tre barns død. (JH1T)

All the cases of DDM in the *Cause* group are represented by the invariable translation equivalent – the preposition *av* (4.83).

4.83. She was extremely overweight, suffered **from** high blood pressure, and through peculiarities of temperament had none of the little network of friends and neighbours that make home confinements pleasant. (MD1)

Hun var særdeles overvektig, led **av** høyt blodtrykk, og på grunn av sitt spesielle temperament hadde hun ikke den lille kretsen av venner og naboer som får en hjemmefødsel til å bli hyggelig. (MD1T)

The data from table 4.8 show that the cases of ZDM are not so common in the English-Norwegian direction as those of DDM. Besides, their representation is far from being numerous. ZDM can be noticed in the *Agent*, *Other*, *Cause* and *Source* groups. Except for the *Agent* group where the high percentage is rather arbitrary since there is the only occurrence in the ENPC, the most numerous ZDM cases are detected in the *Other* group (4.84.) but in percentage ZDM is higher in the *Cause* (4.85) group. The rest of the groups are represented by few occurrences. For example, in the *Exception*, *Dispossession*, *Evidence* and *Constituent* groups no cases are revealed. Even in the *Source* group, being rather numerous, the number of ZDM cases is very low (4.86).

4.84. Now he had reached the age when the odours of the body are more insistent and more difficult to dispel, when the day's work, minimal though it was, felt like a more serious operation than in the early days when there had been so much more to do, when waking **from** sleep was a more lengthy process. (AB1)

Nå hadde han nådd den alderen da kroppsluktene er mer påtrengende og vanskeligere å døyve; dagens arbeid, minimalt som det var, føltes som en større operasjon enn i den første tiden da det var så mye mer å gjøre; det å våkne var en mer langtrukken prosess. (AB1T)

4.85. I have met no one who knew him who thought for an instant that his death might have been **from** other than natural causes. (RDA1)

Jeg har ikke møtt noen som kjente ham som et øyeblikk trodde at hans død skyldtes annet enn naturlige årsaker. (RDA1T)

4.86. They stirred with bravado and fear; they had had many calls for silence **from** teachers who came to harangue them with orders and even to plead reason to them. (NG1)

De var opphisset av frykt og dumdristighet; de hadde allerede flere ganger opplevd lærere som kom for å kalle dem til orden eller prøve å snakke fornuft med dem. (NG1T)

As is seen from the examples, ZDM occurrences demonstrate a high variability of lexical and syntactic patterns used to express one and the same idea in translation. The matter is that different details of the text are focused on in the original and in the translation. In (4.84), for example, a kind of replacement is used where the phrase *waking from sleep* is replaced by the verb *å våkne*. This has resulted in the omission of the preposition in translation. The omission of the preposition in (4.85) and (4.86) is caused by the use of different syntactic structures in translations where the sense of the utterance is rendered by other linguistic means. Thus, such occasional transformations (Miram, 2002:79) are often the matter of a translator's individual choice and communication intention and, in general, strongly depend on stylistic peculiarities of the source text.

The MC value of abstract *from* and *fra* was calculated for each abstract group. As in the previous sections the MC was calculated according to Altenberg's formula (cf. section 3.1). The results are shown in Table 4.9.



**Table 4.9 Mutual correspondence of abstract *from* and *fra***

Abstract meaning	MC
Agent	0
Cause	0
Source	60
Constituent	30
Dispossession	70
Evidence	25
Exception	70
Other	48

As already emerging from table 4.9, it is not possible to establish one-to-one equivalence between the English preposition and its Norwegian counterpart when they operate in the abstract domain. The MC value varies greatly from meaning to meaning. None of the abstract meaning has an MC exceeding 70%. It is highest in the *Dispossession and Exception* groups, then gradually drops to 25% in the *Evidence* group. Zero MC is observed in the groups in which there are no cases of SDM or they occur only in one of the languages.

There seem to be some possible explanations. The groups with a higher MC are more typical in the languages compared and represent semantic relations characterized by a lesser degree of ambiguity. Besides, the cognate prepositions may be available in both languages to express the same meanings and relations. Conversely, the ambiguity of the contextual semantic elements may cause different interpretation since lexical and semantic variants are potentially contained in the prepositions and actualized under specific conditions. In particular, one and the same preposition in a source language may correspond to different prepositions in certain contexts in a target language. On the other hand, in different languages the prepositions in similar expression do not always coincide. In this context it is interesting to compare the MC value of *from* and *fra* in all the uses (spatial, temporal and abstract) (Table 4.10). For the abstract group the average MC value was taken.

**Table 4.10 Mutual correspondence of semantic types of the prepositions *from* and *fra***

Type of use	MC %
Spatial use	61
Temporal use	84
Abstract use	52

The first thing to be noted is a significant difference in the MC between the abstract group and the other ones, though, such a gap is rather predictable. Spatial use is more essential for the prepositions *from* and *fra* where they possess prototypical meanings. Deviations, if any, are not so frequent, that's why the MC in this group is relatively high. The non-correspondences of *from* and *fra* in the cases of spatial use are caused either by linguistic factors (polysemy of prepositions) or by different ways of conceptualization of the same objects by the speaker's community. The MC of temporal *from* and *fra* is even higher. This seems to be explained by the fact that temporal relations are expressed mostly in the same way both in English and Norwegian that restricts the necessity of the use of occasional translation transformations. The data from the table show an relatively low MC in the abstract group. 52% is the average MC that was made up of the MC indexes of all the subgroups. In some of them a zero MC is revealed. As a matter of fact, the MC in the abstract group is much lower than in others. There is a connection between the number of DDM and SDM and the MC value. The analysis of domain mapping showed that in the abstract use the cases of DDM and ZDM are more frequent. This means a higher range of translation transformations which are caused by linguistic traditions, pure grammatical reasons (absence of some categories, different combinability of the parts of speech), different potential of the prepositions *from* and *fra*.

## 5.0 Some cases of ‘tied use’ of the prepositions *fra* and *from*

“Tied use” of the prepositions *fra* and *from* means that they are not free and their meanings are dependent on the meanings of other words. This phenomenon can be observed in fixed prepositional phrases, phrasal verbs and compound words. In this paper I distinguish between the prepositional phrases and phrasal verbs according to a structural criterion. The structures which represent the pattern *fra/from* + *nominal phrase* are considered prepositional phrases whereas the constructions made up of *a verb* + *fra/from* are considered phrasal verbs. The ENPC data preview shows that the frequency of such constructions is not very high (Table 5.1).

**Table 5.1. The frequency of “tied” uses of the prepositions *fra* and *from***

	<i>fra</i>	<i>from</i>
Fixed prepositional phrases	5	10
Phrasal verbs	22	25
Compounds	1	0

These data provide evidence that the number of “tied” uses is slightly higher in the English original texts. *From* is more often used in fixed prepositional phrases. Besides, the number of phrasal verbs is slightly higher in the English source texts as well. An interesting, though predictable, observation emerges from the table: the number of compounds with the preposition *fra* in the original is low, it is restricted to the only occurrence. A detailed analysis of the uses of *fra* and *from* in fixed prepositional phrases, phrasal verbs and compound words will be carried out in the subsequent sections. To carry out the reliable analysis on the compound words, all the hits with *fra* as a part of compounds will be selected and analysed.

## 5.1 *From* and *fra* in fixed prepositional phrases

According to modern grammars, a prepositional phrase is a unit which “consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement which is characteristically a noun phrase, a wh-clause or a V-ing clause” (Quirk et al, 1985:143). This section focuses on the so-called fixed prepositional phrases (Alexander, 1996). The prepositions which form part of these phrases are considered fixed. Fixed prepositions represent a phenomenon that is grammatically and lexically different from free prepositions. According to Aksenenko, they render, on the one hand, abstract, but not concrete relations of place, motion and time. Used in combination with a noun, a verb, a pronoun, an adjective or an adverb, a fixed preposition specifies these relations. A preposition may express the meanings of purpose, consequence, cause and other logical relations. On the other hand, the preposition can help to identify and specify the meanings of autonomous words expressing the notions and relations of subordination, cooperation, psychological reaction and many others (Aksenenko, 1965). What distinguishes free prepositions from fixed ones is that the latter manifest permanent semantic ties with the autonomous word. Numerous verbs and nouns are able to reveal their meanings in combination with a certain preposition. As Aksenenko claims, in fixed prepositional phrases, unlike free ones, the semantics of autonomous words dominates the semantics of prepositions as the meanings of the latter are vaguer. Semantic interrelation between notional words and prepositions is a regularly repeated and obligatory but not an occasional phenomenon. That is why the rules of the use of fixed prepositions do not apply to individual words but to semantic groups of words. A considerable part of the words used with prepositions can be grouped according to the notion they denote, and these words are used with a certain preposition in a specific meaning. For example, the words with the meaning

*famous* are used with the preposition *for*, *supremacy* – with *over*, *escape* – with *from*, etc. (Aksenenko, 1965).

A large number of fixed prepositional phrases are in common use. Some of them have metaphorical or even idiomatic uses which go beyond their time or place associations. As for the structural types of prepositional phrases with the preposition *from* they may be as follows (Alexander, 1996):

- 1) Nouns + preposition
- 2) Preposition + nominal phrases
- 3) Adjectives + preposition

Out of the material assembled for the empirical section of this study it appears that the cases of fixed uses are not a common occurrence for the prepositions *from* and *fra*. The reason for this seems to lie in the semantic nature of the prepositions, i.e. their phraseological and idiomatic potential is rather low. Nevertheless the analyzed samples from the ENPC display some cases of fixed prepositional phrases (Table 5.2).

**Table 5.2 Distribution of the fixed expressions with *from* and *fra* in the English and Norwegian original texts**

	№	%
Norwegian source text	5	1.7
English source text	10	3.3

As the figures demonstrate, the number of fixed prepositional phrases in the English original texts, though very low, is still higher than in the Norwegian ones. As a matter of fact, these phrases can hardly be considered idiomatic since the word “idiom” refers to the “group of

multi-word units, those “fixed/set phrases” which allow limited lexical flexibility and whose meanings cannot be understood by adding together the meanings of their separate constituents” (Riehemann, 2001:3). They would rather be referred to as collocations which are defined as “fixed expressions made up out of two or more words which do have one of the meanings they can have independently, and which combine compositionally, but which are conventionalized, i.e. established, in this particular combination” (Riehemann, 2001:4).

It should be noted that most of the occurrences are the phrases where the preposition *fra* is used in combination with the preposition *til*. From a structural point of view they are mainly represented by the pattern *preposition + noun + preposition + noun* (5.1. – 5.3).

5.1. Fangene hadde nok å gjøre med å forsøke å holde seg fast, slik krenget skipet **fra side til side**. (TTH1)

The prisoners struggled, holding themselves in place as the ship tilted **from side to side**. (TTH1T)

5.2. De slo armene rundt meg og vugget meg **fra side til side**, kysset meg på ørene, på øynene, på munnen. (SL1)

They put their arms round me and rocked me, kissed my ears, my eyes and mouth. (SL1T)

5.3. "**Fra tid til annen** fikk vi fri en helg. (ABR1)

"**From time to time** we had a weekend off. (ABR1T)

The cases above seem to be regular, with the preposition compositionally adding a specific meaning to the construction and introducing a productive pattern. Such phrases as *fra tid til annen* and *fra side til side* represent set expressions which have long been in common use. From the point of view of translation, the meanings of these Norwegian expressions are

traditionally rendered by their English equivalents *from time to time*, *from side to side* correspondently. Nevertheless, in (5.2.) a different translation variant can be observed. The phrase *from side to side* is replaced by the verb *rock* which implies the meaning “to move backwards and forwards”. This translation transformation seems to be grounded in linguistic reasons.

5.4. De kommer som lyn **fra** klar himmel og røver og plyndrer alt de kan få med seg. (TTH1)

They attack like lightning **from** a clear heaven and steal and plunder everything they can carry with them. (TTH1T)

Example (5.4) illustrates one of those uncommon cases where the preposition *fra* is idiomatic. The meaning of the phrase *fra klar himmel* is used here in a metaphorical sense and means *suddenly, unexpectedly*. An analogous English phrase *from a clear heaven* conveys the same image in translation which is scarcely a literal and detailed one.

In the English original texts the variability of fixed prepositional phrases is higher. Apart from the collocations which were mentioned above and have direct counterparts in English *from time to time*, *from side to side*, some other fixed prepositional phrases were revealed in the English-Norwegian direction. Structurally, they may be represented as follows: *adjective + from* (5.5, 5.6).

5.5. In that vast building they were **safe from** soldiers and arrows, blunderbusses, illness, plagues. (ABR1)

I den veldige bygningen var de **trygge mot** soldater og piler, arkebuser, sykdom, pest. (ABR1T)

5.6. I am a believer in sensible choices, so **different from** many of my own. (MA1)

Jeg tror på fornuftige valg, **i motsetning til** mange av mine. (MA1T)

As is seen from the examples different domain mapping is observed in translations. In both of the cases the preposition *from* is rendered by different Norwegian prepositions, such as *mot*, as in (5.5) and *til*, as in (5.6). These non-correspondences seem to be determined by different combinability in English and Norwegian.

Thus, the data from the ENPC show that the frequency of fixed prepositional phrases with the prepositions *from* and *fra* is very low with them mainly being found in the English original texts. This confirms the claim that the prepositions *from* and *fra* have low phraseological and idiomatic potential. There are only a few occurrences, most of which can be considered collocations and have stable equivalents in the target languages. In the case of the idiomatic use of the prepositions *fra* and *from* a phraseological equivalent is used in the translation. The analysis of translation correspondences made it possible to calculate the MC of the prepositions *from* and *fra* which amounted 67%. The cases of non-correspondences seem to be caused by linguistic factors.

## **5.2 *From* and *fra* as a part of phrasal verbs**

It is certainly true that phrasal verbs is one of the most controversial categories in linguistics. This refers not only to the definition but to the components of phrasal verbs. They are defined as verb-particle constructions (Jackendoff, 2002), complex verbs (Carlson, Roeper, 1983), etc. The status of the second component of these constructions is also ambiguous. Evidently, being part of such constructions, *from* and *fra* do not perform the functions of prepositions and belong to some other category. Nevertheless, this research is not aimed at revealing syntactic and semantic criteria for the definition of the units, so in this thesis the terms



“phrasal verbs” and a “postverb” (for the second component of a phrasal verb) (Kunin, 1996) will be used.

According to the common definition, a phrasal verb is a

short two-word (or sometimes three-word) phrase made up of a verb and an adverb (an adverbial particle) or a preposition. Because a phrasal verb is a form of idiom it has a meaning which is different from the sum of its parts. In other words, knowing what the verb and adverb or preposition mean will not necessarily help you understand the combination when they are used together as a phrasal verb (Cullen, 2000: 3).

Phrasal verbs began to form in late medieval times “with the development of some new types of particle verbs which appear not to have existed earlier” (Wayne, 2007:). While the core cases of verbal particles are directional prepositions in origin, and had transparent directional interpretations in the early languages, they have in many instances lost their original lexical semantic content entirely, and are only interpretable in combination with the verb (Elenbaas, 2003). Wayne distinguishes two subtypes. In one of them, idiomatic verb-particle combinations, the combination has a non-compositional meaning. That is, the meaning of the whole cannot be computed from the meanings of its component parts. The second, aspectual, type of phrasal verb is of a more regular sort; the verbal particle has again lost its original directional meaning, but has developed a new meaning relating to the shape of the action described by the verb. Denison (1981) identifies as a prototypical instance of this type the “completive up,” represented in *eat up*, *break up*, *fill up*, for example. Denison notes that this use belongs to the semantic domain of *Aktionsart*, or verbal aspect; the particle alters the contour of the action denoted by the verb, indicating in this case that that action took place up to the point of logical, irreversible conclusion. According to Wayne, both the idiomatic type of phrasal verb construction and the aspectual type seem to have their roots in the later

medieval languages (Wayne, 2007). The development of completive up is discussed in detail in Denison (1981), who assigns it to the twelfth century in English and notes that it appears to have arisen earlier yet in the Scandinavian languages (Old Norse *brjóta upp* “break up”) from which the English construction may derive. Denison (1981: 52) also suggests that the early development of the particle construction in the Scandinavian languages may be connected with the early and general loss of Germanic prefixes in North Germanic. Faarlund proposes that the phrasal-verb strategy arose in Scandinavian as a way of “remedying the information loss occasioned by the disappearances of prefixes: ON *lúka* a had come to mean both “close” (cf. Old English *belúcian*) and “open” (Old English *onlúcian*) in consequence of prefix-loss, and the development of verbal particles, for example, in *lúka upp* “open up”, resolved such ambiguity” (Faarlund, 1994: 70). However, Samuels seems to consider the rise of particles as *the cause of, not the response to*, the loss of prefixes; prefixes were replaced by the verbal particles as part of the implementation of a general preference which he also sees reflected in the shift from prenominal to enclitic definite articles (Samuels, 1972: 84).

A three way classification of phrasal verbs, which seems to be more preferable, is suggested by Dehé (2002) and Jackendoff (2002), where they can be classified into compositional, idiomatic or aspectual, depending on their sense. In the compositional ones the meaning is determined by the literal interpretations of the particle and the verb (e.g. *throw out* in *I don’t want these old books anymore, so I’ll throw them out*). Idiomatic phrasal verbs cannot have their meaning determined by interpreting their components literally (e.g. *go off* meaning “to explode” in *During the last war a bomb went off near that village*). The third class has the particle providing the verb with an endpoint, suggesting that the action described by the verb is performed completely, thoroughly or continuously (e.g. *tear up* in *She’ll tear up any letters that he sends her*).

Guhman notes that the second components of phrasal verbs arose from spatial adverbs and that the Scandinavian languages influenced the development of these constructions in English since the prepositional adverbs were the most common ones in the Scandinavian languages. This was caused by the absence of the verbal prefixes and as a result the prepositional adverbs modified the verb stems (Guhman, 1966). This tendency as well as Scandinavian influence played an important role in the English language development. Thus, the origin and the use of the constructions under consideration in English and Norwegian are based on one and the same phenomenon.

Phrasal verbs represent an integrated semantic structure motivated by its components. Each component performs its own semantic function. The character of connection between the components and their semantics are highly dependent on the function performed by the postverb (Izvolskaya, 2010). According to Izvolskaya, the functions of postverbs are as follows:

- Specifying (a postverb specifies the direction of the action expressed by the verb);
- Intensifying (a postverb intensifies the meaning of completeness of the action expressed by the verb);
- Changing of meaning (a postverb influences the meaning of the verb).

Nevertheless, as Izvolskaya asserts, the semantics of the verb is essential. In some cases the use of a certain postverb is determined by the meaning of the verb. Cullen, for example, notes that though *from* is a very common word in English, it occurs in only a small number of phrasal verbs. Phrasal verbs with *from* have two broad meanings:

### 1) Source or origin

*From* can indicate the source or origin of something, as in the phrasal verbs *come from*, *date from* and *hail from*. Sometimes the meaning is more specific to the gathering of information with *from* indicating how or where this information is obtained, as in *hear from* and *derive from*.

### 2) Hiding, excluding and separating

The second broad sense of *from* used in phrasal verbs suggests that something is hidden or someone prevents it from being seen or becoming known. Examples with this sense include *keep from*, *conceal from*, *etc.* A slight extension of this sense contains the idea of stopping or resisting, as in *withhold from* and *shield from*. *From* is also found as the third element in phrasal verbs, as in *get away from*, *break away from* and *set apart from* (Cullen, 2000). This seems to be the case for the Norwegian phrasal verbs.

The frequency of phrasal verbs in the Norwegian and English source texts and their distribution according to the meaning of the verb are given in Table 14. The distribution was based on Cullen's classification of the verb meanings. According to the classification by Dehé and Jackendoff, all the phrasal verbs with *from* and *fra* extracted from the ENPC can be considered compositional. Of particular note is the following: defining a verb as phrasal I made reference to the Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs.

**Table 5.3 Distribution of the phrasal verbs according to the meaning of the verb**

	Norwegian original text		English original text	
	No	%	No	%
Source, origin	11	48	9	31
Hiding, excluding, separating	12	52	20	69
Total	23	100	29	100

As can be seen from the table 5.3, the number of occurrences is not very high with an approximately equal amount in the Norwegian and English original texts. This implies that *fra* and *from* manifest their phraseological potential equally. It should be noted that the meaning *hiding, excluding, separating* is more common with the verbs combining with *from* and *fra* in both languages with the domination being manifested in a higher degree in the English-Norwegian direction. According to the ENPC data, in the Norwegian original texts the variety of verbs participating in the constructions belonging to the *Source, origin* group is restricted to the verb *komme*.

### 5.2.1. Norwegian-English translations

The phrasal verbs with *fra* in these constructions perform a specifying function. Izvolskaya states that it is significant to take into account the function of the postverb since it influences the linguistic means used for the adequate rendering of the meaning of phrasal verbs in translation and suggests a three-way translation of phrasal verbs: by correspondent phrasal verb, by a verb and by a descriptive way (Izvolskaya, 2010). Let us consider how these propositions are realized in practice (Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4 Translations of phrasal verbs in the Norwegian-English direction**

	Source, origin		Hiding, excluding, separating	
	N	%	N	%
Phrasal verb	11	100	8	67
Verb	-	-	4	33
Descriptive way	-	-	-	-

The analysis of the material shows that the descriptive way of translation is not observed in the ENPC. This method is used where the meaning of a phrasal verb is unclear due to its idiomaticity and there are no direct equivalents in the target language. Moreover, it is not considered the most reasonable and translators tend to avoid it using more economic and precise linguistic means (Izvolskaya, 2010). Such cases were not found in the ENPC, so in most of the occurrences the Norwegian phrasal verbs are translated by correspondent English phrasal verbs. Consider each semantic group separately.

### 5.2.1.1 Source, origin

A congruent phrasal verb is the way of translation that is the most typical for rendering the meaning of a phrasal verb in the *Source, origin* group (5.7, 5.8.) where *komme fra* is translated by *come from*. This can be explained by the fact that the postverb retains its meaning and its omission would cause a radical shift of meaning.

5.7. "Dra tilbake dit dere kom **fra**," sa han. (SH1)

"Go back there where you came **from**," he said. (SH1T)

5.8. Som et varsku og en påminnelse om hvor det gode kommer **fra**, skjøt det brått frem en gyllen stripe **fra** ei revne i skydekket. (HW1)

Like a warning and a reminder of where the good comes **from**, a golden stripe shot abruptly out from a tear in the clouds. (HW1T)

The use of the correspondent phrasal verb in translation for the rendering of the meaning which is expressed by the phrasal verb in the original is also explained by the fact that

English and Norwegian are closely related, so this way of the verbal action modification is almost equally typical of them. Moreover, most of the English and Norwegian postverbs are genetically identical, i.e. they originated from related adverbs and prepositions. This can also be applied to some verbs. For example, the verbs *komme* and *come* have a common origin which causes the use of full equivalents in translation. The analysis of the ENPC material shows that there are no occurrences of non-correspondences in this group.

#### 5.2.1.2. Hiding, excluding, separating

This group differs from the previous one in a wider range of the verbs with the meaning *hiding, excluding, separating*. In the ENPC the verbs of this group are represented by: *skille, isolere, snudde, holde, stjele, etc.* The degree of correspondence between the items in this group is rather high. The Norwegian phrasal verbs have their equivalents in translation, i.e. the number of cases where phrasal verbs in the original text are translated into English by corresponding phrasal verbs is overwhelming, as in (5.9, 5.10). Besides, there is a case where a phrasal verb represents a pattern *verb + borte + fra* (5.11).

5.9. Også nå skulle de stjele hester **fra** en gård i Sonora, men meksikanerne hadde satt ut vakter, og krigerne ble oppdaget. (SH1)

They were again out to steal horses **from** a farm in Sonora, but the Mexicans had placed guards, and the warriors were spotted. (SH1T)

5.10. Men de hadde et annet fellesskap som kvinnfolkene for det meste var utestengt **fra**. (HW1)

They had a different kind of fellowship, **from** which the women were mostly excluded: talking and drinking in the fishing shack lofts and loafing around in

the village on weekends. (HW1T)

5.11. Nå var det også hennes ansvar å passe på at ikke lovene ble brutt, slik hvalen, selen og isbjørnen **holdt seg borte fra** fangstplassene. (MN1)

Now it was also her responsibility to make sure that the laws were not broken, so that the whale, the seal and the polar bear would not **stay away from** the hunting grounds. (MN1T)

The cases of non-correspondence in this group seem to occur for different reasons. Some translation non-correspondences are due to grammatical differences, as in (5.12, 5.13). In (5.12), for instance, (the occurrence is dubbed in the ENPC) the phrasal verb *flytta fra* is translated by the English verb *left*. The difference in translation is due to grammatical differences: the verb *to leave* does not require any posverb in this meaning as well as in (5.13) where the verb *to refuse* is used without any postverbs. In (5.14) the Norwegian phrasal verb *å våkne fra (marerittet)* is rendered by the English *to escape by (awakening)* which, according to the Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, in combination with *by* is not considered phrasal. Moreover, the verbs in the original and in translation express different relationships with different objects. These translations seem to be motivated by translators' individual solutions.

5.12. Menn med sultne blikk, likegyldige blikk, nonchalante blikk retta mot de få kvinnene som også er på bar, kvinner som har **flytta fra** mennene sine, kvinner som er jaget bort, prostituerte. (TB1)

Men with hungry eyes, indifferent eyes, nonchalant eyes turned on the few women in the bar, women who have **left** their men, women who have been driven out, prostituted. (TB1T)



5.13. Men han må **trekke seg fra** oppdraget. (KH1)

However, he had to **refuse** the offer. (KH1T)

5.14. Men det som var selve marerittet, det han sloss for å **våkne fra**, var den endeløse grublingen over hvor han hadde gjort av beskjeden. (KA1)

But the nightmare itself, the thing he struggled to escape by awakening, was the endless brooding on what he 'd done with the message. (KA1T)

### 5.2.2. English – Norwegian translations

The analysis of the phrasal verbs and their translations based on the ENPC data reveals an interesting tendency which is indicated in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5 Translations of phrasal verbs in the English-Norwegian direction**

	Source, origin		Hiding, excluding, separating	
	No	%	No	%
Phrasal verb	6	67	8	40
Verb	3	33	8	40
Another phrasal verb	-	-	1	5
Other	-	-	3	15
Descriptive way	-	-	-	-

As demonstrated in Table 5.4, the frequency of translation correspondences in the English-Norwegian direction is higher than in the Norwegian-English direction with the total number of occurrences being practically equal for both languages. It should also be noted that the ways of rendering the meaning of phrasal verbs in the English-Norwegian direction vary to a

greater degree. Thus, English phrasal verbs can be translated by the correspondent Norwegian phrasal verbs, verbs, other phrasal verbs or by different words or phrases.

#### 5.2.2.1. Source, origin

As for the English original texts, the phrasal verbs in the *source, origin* group represent the constructions with the verbs *suffer, come, spring*. The most typical way of translating the phrasal verb *come from* is the corresponding phrasal verb *komme fra*, as in (5.15). Nevertheless, even in this group some non-correspondences are observed. For example, in (5.16.) *suffer from* is translated as *lide av*. Though, the verbs *lide* and *suffer* have the same meaning the former is not used with the postverb *fra* and requires the postverb *av*. As we consider a phrasal verb as a unit, the replacement of the postverb by another results in a new structure, so, these cases are referred to as the *Another phrasal verb* group. Such non-correspondences can be explained by differences in grammatical structure between English and Norwegian. The *Other* group is represented by the occurrences where we observe a reconstruction of the whole sentence or the use of different syntactic structures in translations (5.17). Here the verb *inherited from (mother)* is rendered as *hadde arvet (mors ravgule øyne og gode tenner)* which suggests a different syntactic structure and expresses the meaning of possession instead of that of a source in the original.

5.15. "They come **from** somewhere in Africa." (FW1)

"De kommer **fra** et sted i Afrika." (FW1T)

5.16. She was extremely overweight, suffered **from** high blood pressure, and through peculiarities of temperament had none of the little network of friends and neighbours that make home confinements pleasant. (MD1)

Hun var særdeles overvektig, led **av** høyt blodtrykk, og på grunn av sitt spesielle temperament hadde hun ikke den lille kretsen av venner og naboer som får en hjemmefødsel til å bli hyggelig. (MD1T)

5.17. We had both inherited amber eyes and good teeth **from** our mother and a tendency to leanness from our father, but our faces, though both tidy enough, were quite different. (DF1)

Både han og jeg hadde arvet mors ravgule øyne og gode tenner, og fars magre kroppsbygning, men ansiktene var helt forskjellige, selv om begge var linjerene nok. (DF1T)

#### 5.2.2.2. Hiding, excluding, separating

This group differs from the *Source, origin* group in that non-correspondences dominate the correspondences with 12 occurrences. The verbs with the meaning *Hiding, excluding, separating* participating in the constructions are: *fall, isolate, take, restrain, steal, get away, stay away, etc.* The occurrences where the English phrasal verb is translated by an equivalent Norwegian phrasal verb are not frequent in this group. Full equivalents are observed in the cases where the posverb *from* is used in combination with the verbs *take, isolate, and rescue*, as in (5.16, 5.17). Nevertheless, most of the translations are not congruent. It should be noted that despite the definite similarity in the meaning of the verbs in the languages compared they are used with different postverbs. *From* as a postverb can be rendered as *av* (5.18), *unna* (5.19), *for* (5.20). The explanation for this seems again to lie in grammatical differences between English and Norwegian. The combinability of the verbs, even semantically close ones, may be different, so they require different particles. Examples (5.18 – 5.20) illustrate the cases where the phrasal verbs are translated by non-congruent verbs.

5.16. Maybe he'd **borrowed** the sum **from** Gahan and was paying it back. (SG1)

Kanskje han hadde **lånt** pengene **av** denne Gahan og ville betale dem tilbake.

(SG1T)

5.17. Ted **rescued Evelyn from** a period of terrifying loneliness; she had miscalculated her own strength, in going out alone straight from college to Africa, but was too proud to admit it. (MD1)

Ted **reddet Evelyn fra** en periode med forferdende ensomhet. Hun hadde feilvurdert sin egen styrke da hun dro ut alene, rett fra college til Afrika, men hun var altfor stolt til å innrømme det. (MD1T)

5.18. Maybe he'd **borrowed the sum from** Gahan and was paying it back. (SG1)

Kanskje han hadde **lånt pengene av** denne Gahan og ville betale dem tilbake.

(SG1T)

5.19. Some people ca n't **keep away from** a deathbed. (PDJ3)

Det fins folk som ikke kan **holde seg unna** et dødsleie. (PDJ3T)

5.20. He did n't **keep from** us, in general, the knowledge that there were places we couldn't go, things we could n't do; but he never tried to expose us to such places, he substituted so many things we could do. (NG1)

Han **skjulte ikke for oss,** i det store og hele, at det var steder vi ikke kunne gå, ting vi ikke kunne gjøre, men han konfronterte oss aldri med det, han fant på så meget annet vi kunne gjøre. (NG1T)

The data from the ENPC provide some occurrences where phrasal verbs are omitted in translation and the meaning of the utterance is rendered by different linguistic means. Examples (5.21, 5.22) illustrate the use of semantic translation transformations which are not

obligatory and can be considered occasional. Such translation deviations seem to be motivated only by translators' individual solutions.

5.21. Her safety-valve, the thing that **prevented her from** going round the bend, was the fun of devising and dishing out these splendid punishments, and the lovely thing was that they seemed to work, at any rate for short periods. (RD1)  
Sikkerhetsventilen hennes, det som gjorde at hun ikke ble fullstendig gal, var all moroa hun hadde med å pønske ut de fantastiske straffene og gleden ved å se at de virket, i hvert fall en liten stund. (RD1T)

5.22. I put my hand on Loren's arm, which **stopped him from** turning away and made him look me in the eye. (JSM1)  
Jeg la hånden på Lorens arm idet han ville til å gå, og fikk ham til å se meg i øynene. (JSM1T)

The cross-linguistic data show that despite the fact that English and Norwegian are closely related languages and a number of the verbs have a common origin, the cases of translation non-correspondence are rather frequent, though the number of phrasal verbs is generally low. Actually, the MC of phrasal verbs with *fra* and *from* in postposition is 63%. The reasons for this seem to lie in the differences in collocational restrictions of the languages compared and in some cases translation transformations are determined by the translator's choice. Judging by these cross-linguistic non-correspondences it is not meant that the translator always has to search for one-to-one categorically or structurally equivalent units, i.e. in some cases two different linguistic units across English and Norwegian languages carry the same function. To sum up, the above analysis made it possible to reveal the following tendencies:

- Although phrasal verbs is a frequent phenomenon in both the Norwegian and English languages, the number of occurrences of phrasal verbs with *fra* and *from* is not very high.
- The phraseological potential of the phrasal verbs with *from* and *fra* is low. They rarely represent idiomatic expressions.
- A greater degree of translation non-correspondences is observed in the *Hiding, excluding, separating* group. This can be explained by the fact that the verbs referring to this semantic group vary and, due to the differences in their combinability in Norwegian and English, they may require a different particle.

### **5.3. *Fra* as a component of compound words**

Compound words form an important part of natural language. Many natural languages are highly productive with compounds. Bauer defines a compound as the formation of a new lexeme by adjoining two or more lexemes (Bauer, 2002:40). Compounds can be considered as non-compositional only because they are invariable: the sequence of constituents is fixed, and as for their lexical flexibility, attributive determinations (or modifications) are only external, namely, they will affect the whole compound rather than one or the other component (Štekauer & Lieber, 2005). Compound formation rules vary widely across languages. As for prepositions, they can participate in definite word-building patterns. For example, it is not typical of English prepositions to form compounds with other parts of speech. They can only be part of compound prepositions, such as *within*, *without*, although *from* cannot function as a part of compound prepositions.

A number of prepositions in Norwegian are compound. They, as a rule, are combinations of simple prepositions, and give the opportunity to express more specified relations than simple prepositions (Faarlund, 1997). The compound prepositions are mostly transitive, however, in contrast to simple prepositions they may be used without a complement as well:

5.23. Bilen står utenfor (porten) Lit.: The car stands outfor (outside)(the gate).

5.24. Brevet er lagt inni (konvolutten) Lit.: the letter is laid inni (the envelope).

5.25. Det var mange båter utpå (sjøen) Lit.: There were many boats outon (the sea).

(Examples from Faarlund, 1997: 415)

Some of the compound prepositions which begin with *for* and *akter* are intransitive: *aktenfor*, *akterover*, *akterut*, *forfra*, *forover*, *forut*. Those prepositions that contain *hjemme* belong to the intransitives as well: *hjemmefra*, *hjemover*. Historisms and older word forms that end in *-an* may also combine with the preposition *fra*: *austan(i)fra* and in *nedefra*, *neden(i)fra*. These prepositions very seldom require a complement, thus *nordfra*, *vestfra*, *bakfra* and *forfra* are never followed by a complement (Faarlund, 1997):

5.26. På krakken ved siden av seg hadde Reim en bunke hvalrosshuder som hadde kommet med et handelsskip **nordfra**. (TTH1)

On a stool beside him, Reim had a pile of walrus hides that had arrived with a merchant ship **from the north**. (TTH1T)

5.27. Han grep tak i ham **bakfra**, snurret ham rundt og slo ham så hardt i ansiktet at han raket sidelengs og falt. (KA1)

He grabbed him **from behind**, spun him around, and hit him so hard in the face that he reeled sideways and fell. (KA1T)

Quite often some simple prepositions combine with the preposition *i*: *iblant, ifra, igjennom, imellom, imot*. This preposition, more or less, is synonymous to the correspondent simple ones without *i*. There is a tendency to use a compound preposition with *i* when it is not followed by a complement. Compound prepositions, as a matter of fact, are not ambiguous in contrast to simple ones.

From the semantic point of view these compounds may be compositional and non-compositional (Hedlund, 2002). The semantic structure of compositional compounds is often transparent. Their meaning can be derived from the meanings of their component parts. The meaning of the non-compositional compounds is opaque. They are often lexicalized with a fixed meaning.

According to the ENPC evidence the phenomenon of compound words with *fra* is not encouraging frequent. To depict a more general representation of compounds I found it expedient to use the data of the whole ENPC (Table 5.6).

**Table 5.6 Distribution of the compounds with *fra* in the originals and translations**

Compounds	Original texts	Translations	Total number
utenfra	6	7	13
derfra	11	17	28
hiemmefra	16	21	37
herfra	8	16	24
bakfra	5	7	12
innenfra	1	1	2
forfra	3	1	4

As the data demonstrate, the frequency of the compounds in the ENPC is comparatively low. The most frequent ones both in the originals and translations are *hiemmefra*, *derfra* and *herfra*. Besides, an interesting tendency emerges from the table. The frequency of compounds is significantly higher in translations. This seems to be caused by the peculiarities of the word



formation in the Norwegian language. In particular, the ability of Norwegian prepositions to participate in word-building patterns is manifested here.

The total number of compounds extracted from the source and target language in the ENPC is 120. This quite small number will apparently affect the scope of the analysis and may limit the validity of the results in terms of representativeness. The compound words presented in this thesis are not a localized phenomenon; they have great variability and syntactic functions. My search was restricted to the 7 most common compounds. Semantically, they can be referred to as compositional. Structurally, they represent the following patterns: *adverb + fra*, *preposition + fra*, *adjective + fra*. According to Petrova (2006), there are some traditional ways of translation of compound words: by a correspondent compound, by a simple word or by a phrase construction (attributive, nominal or verbal) (Petrova, 2006). English correspondences of the compounds with *fra* are indicated in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7 English correspondences of Norwegian compounds with *fra***

Compound	Translation equivalents	Compound	Translation equivalents
Hjemmefra (16)	From home (10)	Utenfra (6)	From outside (5)
	Home (3)		Out (1)
	At home (1)		
	Back home (1)		
	Zero correspondence (1)		
Compound	Translation equivalents	Compound	Translation equivalents
Innenfra (1)	Zero correspondence (1)	Forfra (3)	Forwards (1)
			From in front (1)
			Into his face (1)

Compound	Translation equivalents
Forfra (3)	Forwards (1)
	From infront (1)
	Into his face (1)
Compound	Translation equivalents
Bakfra (5)	From behind (3)
	From the back (1)
	Backwards (1)

Compound	Translation equivalents
Derfra (11)	From there (4)
	Zero correspondence (2)
	From them (1)
	From those (1)
	From the area (1)
	Out (1)
	Off (1)

The analysis of the ENPC material shows that the Norwegian compounds correspond to phrase constructions in English. This can be explained by the fact that the compounds made up according to the model *preposition + nominal part of speech* are not typical of the English language, so, the forms equivalent to the Norwegian compounds do not exist in English. As can be seen from the examples, the English phrase constructions are mainly represented by the combination of the *preposition from + adverb, pronoun or noun*. For example, the Norwegian *hjemmefra* is rendered as *back home* (5.28).

5.28. Og han kunne sitte urørlig ved utegrillen og knaske salat direkte fra bollen mens de andre snakket om felles bekjente **hjemmefra**. (OEL1)

And he was able to sit motionless by the barbecue grill and munch salad straight from the bowl while the others talked about people they knew **back home**. (OEL1T)

The rest of the examples illustrating the use of the compounds with *fra* were found in the English–Norwegian direction. Here a reverse phenomenon can be observed, i. e. the English phrase constructions are translated by the Norwegian compounds, as in (5.29) *from here* is translated as *herfra*, *from home* as *hjemmefra* (5.30), *from behind* as *bakfra* in all the cases, as in (5.31.). These correspondences, in general, can be considered equivalent. It is interesting

that the English *from there* has two translations: *derfra* (5.32) and *innefra* (5.33). This seems to be explained by the influence of the context where the first part of the Norwegian compound specifies the characteristic of space.

5.29. "You can never hear anything at the house **from here**." (RR1)

Han forklarte: "Vi hører aldri noe til det som foregår i huset **herfra**." (RR1T)

5.30. He was jubilant at being there and far **from home**, and lost, and poor, and free. (JC1)

Han jublet av glede over å være der, langt **hjemmefra** og bortkommen og fattig og fri. (JC1T)

5.31. He felt two large hands grip him **from behind** and push his head in between his knees until the carpet came into focus and he heard himself gasping. (MM1)

Han merket at to store hender grep ham **bakfra**. Hendene holdt hodet hans mellom knærne, og så begynte han å se teppet klart. Det var vanskelig å puste. (MM1T)

5.32. **From there** we watch as people dressed like snowflakes, like elves, like rabbits, like sugar plum fairies, march past us, strangely truncated because we're looking down on them. (MA1)

**Derfra** ser vi mennesker utkleddt som snøfnugg, som dverger, som kaniner og sukkertøyalver marsjere forbi oss, underlig sammenklemt fordi vi ser dem ovenfra. (MA1T)

5.33. The kitchen door wasn't closed; the light **from there** was cutting across the stairs just below me. (RDO1)

Kjøkkendøra var ikke igjen; lyset der **innefra** falt over trappa like nedenfor meg. (RDO1T)

The empirical analysis shows that the potential of the Norwegian preposition *fra* to make up compounds is verified, according to the ENPC data, in such word-forms as *utenfra*, *derfra*, *hjemmefra*, *bakfra* and some others. It is notable that an impressive amount of new

associations is created by employing quite common lexical units, as a proof of the amazing productivity of the Norwegian language. The fact that the English correspondences represent other linguistic means is due to the absence of such compounds in English. The correspondent English phrase constructions used in the translation of the Norwegian compounds with the component *fra* do not distort their original meaning and can be considered their equivalents.

As far as the ENPC data are concerned, the word-building potential of *fra* is higher than that of its English cognate. Though, in general, the English prepositions can form compounds (compound prepositions) this characteristic feature does not seem to be typical of the preposition *from*. *Fra*, on the contrary, according to the ENPC data, can be part of compound prepositions, adverbs and adjectives, i.e. it is a language-specific feature. Another point that needs to be marked regarding the translation of Norwegian compound words is that English correspondences show a strong preference with respect to the choice of an equivalent. This is fairly straightforward in itself, as the parts of Norwegian compounds have, as a rule, direct English equivalents which compose fixed phrases used in the translation. For example, *backfra* = *from behind* where *from* = *fra* and *behind* = *bak*.

## 6.0 Conclusion

It may be claimed that traditional linguistic approaches do not allow us to define the boundaries of the semantic structure of the prepositions of separation and establish the connection between the meanings of prepositions and peculiarities of the spatial scenes described by them. Moreover, the analysis of the interpretations represented in dictionaries and grammars give reasons to claim that these interpretations are of low predictive power since the definitions of the prepositions are either too general or are associated with contextual meaning. An integrative approach which includes traditional, cognitive and cross-linguistic ones has made it possible to specify the meanings of the prepositions *fra* and *from*, both individually and in context.

The study shows that *fra* is more closely associated with the cognates' original sense of source while the English preposition seems to have developed a wider semantic net. Another striking feature of this investigation was that the Norwegian preposition has a greater scope of syntactic environment. Thus, *fra* may operate as intransitive preposition without requiring a complement. *From*, on the other hand is purely transitive preposition.

It was stated that the prepositions *fra* and *from* are characterized by their polysemy. Despite the fact that they have a common element in their meaning structure one can follow the differences in the meaning network of the prepositional category in the Norwegian and the English languages. *Fra* and *from* may depict various images of spatial scenes where the characteristics of X's location is crucial for specifying the meaning of the prepositions. It is notable that *from* and *fra* may introduce different types of space and determine different types of X–Y relations. As for the cross-linguistic correspondences of *from* and *fra* it should be noted that semantic overlap is frequently found; the degree to which this happens varies

according to the type of use.

The contrastive analysis carried out in this thesis has made it possible to reveal similarities and divergences in the use of the prepositions *from* and *fra*. In this connection the MC index proved useful. The highest MC value was revealed in the temporal and spatial uses of *fra* and *from*. It reached 84 % and 61%, respectively. Such a relatively high MC, especially for the temporal group, may indicate that the prepositions are available in both languages to express spatial and temporal relations and the prototypical meanings of the prepositions *from* and *fra* are retained in translations. The non-correspondences between *from* and *fra* in the cases of spatial and temporal use are characterized by the following: non-correspondences are caused either by linguistic factors (polysemy of prepositions) or by different ways of conceptualization of the same objects by the speaker's community.

In the abstract group the MC proved to be relatively low. The highest MC is observed in the *Other*, *Exception* and *Source* groups. In some of the groups such as *Agent*, *Cause* and *Evidence* one can observe zero MC. Some possible explanations include: the groups with a higher MC are more typical in the languages compared and represent semantic relations characterized by a lesser degree of ambiguity. Besides, the cognate prepositions may be available in both languages to express the same meanings and relations. Conversely, the ambiguity of the contextual semantic elements may cause different interpretations since lexical and semantic variants are potentially contained in the prepositions and actualized under specific conditions of language use. In particular, one and the same preposition in the original may be rendered differently in certain contexts in translation. Besides, in different languages the prepositions in similar expressions do not always coincide.

The analysis of “tied” uses of *fra* and *from* revealed some interesting tendencies. The uses of the prepositions in fixed prepositional phrases, phrasal verbs and compound words are not so common in English and Norwegian. The reason for this seems to lie in the semantic nature of

the prepositions, i.e. their phraseological and idiomatic potential is rather low. Nevertheless, the ENPC data showed that the number of “tied” uses is slightly higher in the English-Norwegian direction. *Fra*, in contrast to *from*, can be part of compounds.

As for the translations of fixed prepositional phrases with *fra* and *from*, most of which can be considered collocations, they have stable equivalents in the target languages. The MC of the prepositions *from* and *fra* in fixed prepositional phrases is 67%. As appears from the ENPC analysis of phrasal verbs the cases of their translation non-correspondences are rather frequent. The MC of phrasal verbs with *fra* and *from* in postposition is 63%. The reasons for this seem to lie in the differences in morphological structures of the languages compared and in some cases translation transformations are individually determined.

The empirical analysis of the compounds showed that the word-building potential of *fra*, which, unlike *from*, is higher than that of its English cognate. Most of the Norwegian compounds correspond to phrase constructions in English which do not distort their original meaning and can be considered their equivalents.

It should be emphasized that the findings and tendencies presented in this thesis and the conclusions I have come to were based on a small sample from the ENPC and cannot be considered universal.

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